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INHERITANCE OF STAPLE LENGTH IN UPLAND COTTON (*GOSSYPIUM HIRSUTUM* L.) AND ITS INTERRELATIONSHIPS WITH PERIMETER, WALL THICKNESS, AND WEIGHT FINENESS OF FIBER
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Inheritance of Staple Length in Upland Cotton, (*Gossypium Hirsutum* L.) and Its Interrelationships with Perimeter, Wall Thickness, and Weight Fineness of Fiber[1]

J. Vélez Fortuño[2]

INTRODUCTION

Cotton production may become an important enterprise in the agriculture of Puerto Rico in the near future. On the basis of these possibilities, work has been started with the object of improving the Sea Island variety (*Gossypium barbadense*), which constitutes the bulk of the cotton grown in the Island.

Upland cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*) is one of the possible sources of germ plasm that can be used in the improvement of Sea Island cotton. A combination of certain desirable fiber characters from both these types of cotton would probably yield a better fiber that would meet with the ever-increasing market requirements.

The quality of cotton, upon which market price and demand are based essentially, is governed by its physical properties or characteristics which determine its usefulness. Length of staple and fineness which are involved in this study, are among the principal physical properties or characteristics of cotton related to its quality.

At present the old measures of grade and staple length are being supplemented by tests for maturity, fineness, strength, and other quality

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[2] Plant Breeder, Head Department of Plant Breeding, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras, P.R.

affecting characteristics, as a result of more strict market and industry requirements due to competition of other fibers.

The fiber of most of the American Upland cottons measures between 1 and 1⅛ inches, though varieties are found shorter than 1 inch and others as long as 1½ inches in staple length.

Staple length is the normal length by measurement of a typical portion of the cotton fibers. It is the oldest and most currently used fiber property for evaluating cotton. Although it is a varietal characteristic it is, nevertheless, influenced to some extent by environmental factors.

Results from research indicate that fiber fineness is of extreme importance in spinning, as it affects both skein strength and yarn appearance. This characteristic depends on two properties, namely, the perimeter of the fiber, which is largely an inherited trait, and the fiber-wall thickness which is dependent on both genetic and environmental factors.

For a long time cotton breeding has aimed mainly at improvement of yield and, as a result, varieties of satisfactory yielding capacity are currently available to farmers.

Today cotton breeders are giving primary attention to the improvement of fiber quality, which is in itself dependent on a number of characteristics such as staple length, weight fineness, and maturity. Since all of these characteristics are quantitative in their inheritance, their complex genetic behavior results in serious complications in a breeding program. Thus a basic knowledge of the genetic behavior of these characters is fundamental to a proper handling of them by breeders. In the past few years data have accumulated on the inheritance of these characters and today intensive studies are being conducted on their genetics and interrelationships in both public and private enterprises involved in cotton research. These studies will yield more conclusive facts which will enable cotton breeders to select more efficiently for these characters, and finally, will result in the production of better cotton varieties possessing a combination of these characteristics.

This paper presents the results of a genetic study of fiber length in Upland cotton and its interrelationships with perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness of the fiber. The parents used differed widely in all of the fiber characters involved in this study, which resulted in a broad range of segregation and gave a greater opportunity for expression of genetic relationships.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INHERITANCE OF STAPLE LENGTH

One of the most important factors affecting quality in cotton is staple length. In fact, it is the oldest and most widely known property used as a

basis for evaluating cotton fiber. Consequently much work has been done concerning the inheritance of this fiber characteristic and its interrelationship with other fiber characters.

Mell (15)[3] was one of the pioneers in the study of the inheritance of fiber length while attempting to improve the cotton fiber. He made observations of a number of crosses among the leading upland varieties of his time. Comparisons were presumably between F_1 and their respective parents of 25 different crosses. He obtained the following results: In eight crosses involving parents of 1 inch or less the F_1 of six crosses had a mean fiber length equal to the longer parent, and one F_1 generation showed slight dominance in favor of short fiber. In crosses involving varieties having staple lengths of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches with varieties of 1 inch or less he observed that the F_1 of none of them reached the length of the long parent; the F_1 of three crosses was intermediate; the F_1 of one cross was nearer the short parent; and the F_1 of another cross was shorter than the shorter parent.

Fletcher (3) reported that long fiber is dominant over short in crosses between Asiatic cottons.

McLendon (14) got an F_1 ranging between intermediate and long in crosses of Egyptian long and Upland short. Furthermore, he reported that parental forms reappear in the F_2, indicating a segregation into a 3:1 ratio. According to Harland (7) his data are not convincing.

Balls (1) studied the inheritance of lint length. In a cross of Afifi (Egyptian) by Truit (Upland) he observed that segregation was simple, long being dominant over short. The Charara × King cross gave dominance of long fiber in F_1, with subsequent unimodal composition in F_2. Sultani × Afifi gave dominance of long fiber, and the F_2 curve was almost symmetrical between the parental extremes. He stated that subsequent generations have shown that pure parental length can be extracted, while new intermediate lengths may also breed true. On the basis of his observations he stated that probably lint length is inherited simply, in spite of the complication observed in the Charara × King second generation.

Kearney (12) in a cross of Holden (*hirsutum*, Upland) × Pima (*barbadense*, Egyptian) found that the mean lint length of the F_1 approached that of the long parent, and the F_2 gave a unimodal almost symmetrical curve, indicating that several factors are involved in determining this character.

Kottur (13) studied a cross between two other species using varieties, Dharwar No. 1 (*G. herbaceum*) × Rosea (*G. neglectum*). He reported that length of lint was practically dominant in the F_1, or about as long as the former or longer parent. Segregation in subsequent generations was not in accordance with any definite ratio. There was a close association between brown lint and short fiber and he stated that genes for brown lint interfered

[3] Numbers in parentheses refer to Literature Cited, pp. 47–8.

with the normal Mendelian law and that all plants with brown lint were automatically drawn into a short class. In the F_2 generation he observed a segregation of 2.7 long to 1 short when the brown lint plants were not considered. F_3 progenies from 15 F_2 plants with white lint and long fiber were grown. Three F_2 plants were apparently pure for long staple, nine segregated in a 3:1 ratio, two segregated in an indefinite ratio, and one gave only short-staple plants.

Fyson (4) studied length of lint in several crosses among species of cotton in India. He reported that long and fine lint were dominant over short and rough, woolly lint in the cross Jowari (*Gossypium herbaceum*) × Jari (*G. neglectum*).

Ware (21) crossed Pima (*barbadense*) × Upland cottons (*hirsutum*) and made observations on the inheritance of length of lint. In crosses of Pima × Winesap, he reported practically complete dominance of long lint over short in F_1. Segregation in the F_2 indicated that several pairs of factors were involved in determining the length of fiber. Crosses of Pima × Upright showed complete dominance of long lint and some indications of hybrid vigor. The F_1 mean was 1.03 mm. longer than the mean of the long-linted parent. A Sea Island × Winesap cross showed practically complete dominance of long lint over short.

Harland (7) obtained an F_1 intermediate, but somewhat nearer the long parent, when he crossed *purpurascens* (short) and *barbadense* (long). In the F_2 he observed that continuous variation occurred between the plants, with no definite mode.

On the basis of data obtained by different workers, Harland (7) stated that probably a large number of genes with independent minute effects are involved in the determination of lint length, with secondary effects produced by some of the major genes.

Humphrey (9) conducted studies on the effects of inbreeding in cotton with special reference to staple length. Upon selfing of 200 or more plants from eight varieties of upland cotton, he reported as follows: The first observable effect was a rapid segregation of many plant types, frequently different from the variety from which they arose. This rapid segregation applied also to lint length. Most of the segregation for lint length occurred in the first generation and little after the third generation. He assumed that it would require at least three generations to produce a uniform strain.

Ware (22) studied the inheritance of lint length in a cross involving Florida Green Seed (¾ inch) and Rowden (1 1/32 inches), two Upland varieties. He presented frequency distribution tables of parents, F_1, F_2, backcross to Florida Green Seed, and backcross to Rowden. Measurements of fiber length were obtained with the Fibrograph. He reported incomplete dominance of long fiber in the F_1, with monomodal segregation in the F_2.

The Florida Green Seed recurrent parent in the backcross tended to reduce the length of fiber below that of the F_1, but the Rowden recurrent parent did not pull the length above that of the F_2. The particular Rowden plant in this case, although a progeny of the original plant, was slightly superior.

Hancock (6) studied the effect of environment on length and fineness of the cotton fiber. He found that both of these fiber characters are greatly affected by seasonal changes. He suggested that since environment tended to alter the genetic properties of any variety, its effects should be studied at different locations over several seasons.

Simpson (19) planted "inbred" seed (obtained from isolated fields) and "open-pollinated seed" (obtained from open-pollinated plants in a yield trial for 25 varieties) in a split-plot design, to determine differences in lint length and other characters between inbred and open-pollinated progenies. He found no significant differences in lint length between these progenies nor did he find any indication of heterosis.

Isaac (10) studied the inheritance of staple length in an F_2 population of 212 plants from a cross between Delta Smooth Leaf and a Stoneville Composite. A unimodal segregation for the F_2 was obtained, but the difference between the parents was not sufficient to establish any additional knowledge on the inheritance of this character.

Henderson, *et al.* (8) studied the inheritance of staple length in two crosses involving different plants of Half and Half and Wilds. In one of the crosses, Half and Half-2 × Wilds-1, they obtained indications of a slight degree of partial dominance for long staple by comparing the mean staple lengths of the F_1 and F_2 with the average of the parents.

With a difference of 0.29 inch in staple length between the parents, they estimated a minimum gene difference of four to five pairs, based on the recovery of Half and Half-2 genotypes, the short-fiber parent.

The heritability value obtained for staple length in the F_2 population was 67 percent.

In the Wilds-7 × Half and Half-1 cross, the mean difference in staple length between the parents was 0.45 inch.

The evidence obtained in this cross indicated partial dominance of the long-staple condition of the Wilds-7 parent.

They estimated the minimum gene difference between the parents to be 9 pairs of genes and perhaps as many as 18 or 20 pairs.

The heritability value calculated for the F_2 of this cross was 73 percent.

The evidence accumulated from studies on the inheritance of staple length proves that this character is quantitatively inherited, and that it is governed by a large number of pairs of genes. It is safe to conclude that in most crosses long lint is partially dominant over short, and that unimodal segregation usually occurs, especially in intraspecific crosses. The bulk of

the data available on the inheritance of this character has been obtained from interspecific crosses. Consequently, a more extensive search for additional data that will enrich our knowledge of its inheritance in American Upland cotton should be continued.

INTERRELATIONSHIPS OF LENGTH, PERIMETER, WALL THICKNESS, AND WEIGHT FINENESS OF THE FIBER

Information on the degree of association between plant characters is of great usefulness in plant breeding. The association between plant characters can be measured by linear correlation coefficients.

Two or more characters of a plant are often correlated, either because of the manifold effect of a gene or genes on different parts of the plant or of linkage among genetic factors.

In cotton such information pertaining to the various fiber characters is of extreme importance. With the advent of new equipment suitable for the measurement of some of the most important fiber characters, such as perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness, the knowledge of the interrelationships of these and other important traits of the cotton plant and fiber, should be broadened.

Iyengar and Turner (11) found that longer fibers of *hirsutum* generally had lower fiber weights per centimeter. *Herbaceum*, *neglectum*, and *indicum* showed less change in fiber weight associated with changes in fiber length.

O'Kelly and Hull (17) obtained significant positive correlations ranging from $r = 0.452$ to $r = 0.751$ between length of parent and that of the progeny.

Harland (7) stated that length and fineness were correlated. He pointed out that long cottons are usually fine, though some are relatively coarse, while short cottons may be either fine or coarse.

Moore (16) found the simple correlations among various fiber characters in five cotton varieties shown in table 1.

As shown in table 1, the correlation coefficients for the relation of average fiber length to average fiber weight per inch were negative for all varieties but were significant in only three: Mexican 128, Cocker-Cleveland 884-4, and Acala 4067. The values for the relationship of average fiber length to percentage of thin-walled fibers were all positive, but they were significant in only two varieties: Acala 4067 and Rowden 40. The correlation of average fiber length with average fiber diameter was significant only in variety, Mexican 128, for which it was negative. The values for the correlation of fiber weight with the percentage of thin-walled fibers were negative and highly significant for all the varieties. It is also indicated that the correlation of fiber weight with fiber diameter was significant in only one variety, Mexican 128, for which it was positive. The values for the relation of the

TABLE 1.—*The simple correlation within varieties of fiber length, fiber weight, percentage of thin-walled fibers, and fiber diameter for all 5 varieties of cotton*

Variables paired	Simple correlation coefficients for variety named[1]				
	Mexican 128	Coker Cleveland 884-4	Farm Relief No. 1	Acala 4067	Rowden 40
Average fiber length and:					
Ave. fiber wt. per inch	−0.4106**	−0.3853**	−0.1562	−0.4443**	−0.2495
Percentage of thin-walled fibers	.1076	.1338	.0454	.3467**	.2876**
Ave. fiber diameter	−.3433**	−.1894	−.1702	.0705	.1612
Ave. fiber weight per inch and:					
Percentage of thin-walled fibers	−.5919**	−.7202**	−.7928**	−.7725**	−.4416**
Ave. fiber diameter	.3561**	.2006	−.0743	.1539	.0985
Percentage of thin-walled fibers and:					
Ave. diameter	−.0001	−.0744	.2585*	.0169	.2740*

[1] * = Significant values at the 5-percent level of probability; ** = highly significant values at the 1-percent level of probability.

percentage of thin-walled fibers to the average fiber diameter were significant in only two varieties, Farm Relief No. 1 and Rowden 40, the association being positive.

Moore also calculated correlation coefficients for these characters from 300 regions on 50 seeds of these cotton varieties (6 regions per seed × 50 seed = 300 regions) based upon differences between regions within seeds and also between regions of seeds, or plants. Simple and partial correlations of these characters by regions on the seed and also by seeds, or plants are shown in table 2.

Hancock (6) found simple correlation coefficients of length and fineness among 10 varieties of American Upland cotton in two seasons to be $r = 0.699$ in 1941, and $r = 0.266$ in 1946. Measurements were obtained by using the Fibrograph for length, and surface-area data from the Arealometer for fineness. However, he stated that length and fineness were genetically independent. For the seasons of 1941 and 1942 partial correlation coefficients obtained for length and fineness among varieties holding strength constant were 0.734 and 0.438, respectively. He found correlations between length and strength to be environmental and he assumed that length is an independent variable when associated with strength.

Barker and Pope (2) obtained correlations for length of fiber with fineness (expressed as surface area) in three groups of samples from varieties of Upland cotton grown at several locations. Correlation coefficients for va-

TABLE 2.—*Simple and partial correlations of fiber length, fiber weight, percentage of thin-walled fibers, and fiber diameter for the entire experiment including all 5 varieties of cotton*

[Partial correlations include density of fiber population and fiber strength]

Characters correlated[1]	Simple correlation coefficients[1]		Characters held constant [2]	Partial correlation coefficients[1]	
	By regions ($n'' = 300$)	By plants or seeds ($n'' = 50$)		By regions ($n'' = 300$)	By plants or seeds ($n'' = 50$)
12	−0.2561**	−0.2455	12.3456	−0.3022**	−0.4237**
13	.0762	−.1006	13.2456	−.0710	−.1250
14	.0811	.1864	14.2356	.1664**	.2845
23	−.5924**	−.1143	23.1456	−.2562**	−.1330
24	.1801**	.4544**	24.1356	.2975**	.4532**
34	.0824	−.0058	34.1256	.2037**	.1940

[1] * = Significant value at 5-percent level of probability; ** = highly significant value at 1-percent level of probability.

[2] 1 = Ave. fiber length; 2 = ave. fiber weight per inch; 3 = percentage of thin-walled fibers; 4 = ave. fiber diameter; 5 = density of fiber population; 6 = ave. breaking-load per fiber.

rieties within stations were used as an indication of varietal effect or of the extent of the genetic correlation between the characters. Correlation coefficients for within-varieties were used as an indication of environmental effect on correlation. Varietal correlations of 0.32*, 0.46*, and 0.29*, and environmental correlations of −0.08, −0.12, and 0.05 were obtained by them on the same group of samples. They also obtained correlations of −0.53*, and −0.49* for length and weight per inch. Other values obtained were as follows:

1. For length and percentage of thick-walled fibers, −0.23* and 0.10.
2. For surface area and weight per inch, −0.77*, and −0.61*.
3. For surface area with percentage of thick-walled fibers, −0.60*, and −0.51*.
4. For weight per inch with percentage of thick-walled fibers, 0.58*, and 0.36*.

Stroman (20) studied correlations between length and other characters in a population composed of a mixture of related families. In the season of 1944 it was positively correlated with diameter of fiber ($r = 0.34$), and in that of 1945, with boll weight. In the 1946 data classer's length was associated with none of the other characters studied. In the 1945 and 1946 seasons, however, correlation of length and diameter of fiber was negative but not significant.

Green (5) obtained a correlation of −0.7114 between length and fineness of fiber among 285 different strains of cotton.

Henderson, *et al.* (8) obtained the following simple correlations in a study of a population of 228 F_2 plants of the Wilds-7 × Half and Half-1 cross:

Characters correlated	*r value obtained*
Length and perimeter	−0.117
Length and wall thickness	−.062
Length and weight fineness	−.126
Perimeter and wall thickness	.087
Perimeter and weight fineness	.545**
Wall thickness and weight fineness	.812**

** Significant at the 1-percent level of probability.

Highly significant positive correlations were obtained between perimeter and weight fineness, and between wall thickness and weight fineness.

To sum up, according to the information available, there seems to exist a fairly high degree of association, negative in nature, between length and fineness of fiber. Long-fiber cottons tend to be fine, whereas short-fiber ones tend to be coarse.

Very little genetic information is available on perimeter and wall thickness of the fiber, which are the components, or determiners, of weight fineness. This will enlarge our knowledge of the genetic behavior of these fiber characters, and their interrelationships, which would enable breeders to progress in their efforts to improve cotton fiber, as is demanded by present-day markets.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

PARENTS

The parents selected for this study were two Upland varieties (*Gossypium hirsutum*), designated as Florida 1377 and D.P.L. 45-867. Neither of these varieties is of any commercial importance, but they represent the extremes in the length range in the Upland cottons, and differ widely with regard to wall thickness and perimeter of the fiber. These properties qualify them for a genetic study of fiber length and its relationships with fiber-wall thickness and perimeter.

Plants of these two varieties were selfed for several generations until they had attained a relatively homozygous condition. At this stage, selfed seed of these plants were planted and each plant was properly identified by a number. Controlled crosses between them were made using the standard technique practiced in cotton.

The following season a number of F_1 plants from each of two crosses involving different parent plants were grown in the field and selfed in order to obtain ample F_2 seed.

In the spring of 1952, properly identified selfed seed of each parent, seed of the F_1 and F_2 populations were planted.

The parents were sown at the rate of three seeds per hill on an Olivier silt loam field at the Agronomy Farm, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, La. The hills were spaced 30 inches apart on 42-inch rows for convenient handling of individual plants. Border rows were planted to provide control over border effects.

Six hundred pounds per acre of a 6–8–8 fertilizer were applied previous to planting. A sidedressing of 100 pounds of nitrate of soda per acre was applied just after the appearance of the first aquares.

In general, the conditions for growth were favorable and the plants fruited well. Each plant was numbered in the field before harvesting and seed cotton was harvested from each plant separately, and properly identified as to the plant from which it had been harvested.

The seed cotton from each plant including parents, F_1 and F_2, was ginned separately on a small roller-type gin.

DETERMINATION OF FIBER LENGTH

Length of fiber from each individual plant was determined by the standard method of pulling and measuring staple length by hand. Staple length is the normal length of a cotton sample by measurement of a typical portion of its fibers.

Nearly 2 months were spent in training on the measurement of fiber length using cotton standards of varying lengths until skill and accuracy in measuring them within a tolerance of $\frac{1}{16}$ inch was acquired.

Two samples from each plant were measured to $\frac{1}{32}$ of an inch (0.03 in.) and the average between them was taken as the actual length for the plant if they were not different by more than $\frac{1}{16}$ inch. In cases in which the difference between the two samples of one plant was greater than $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch (0.06 in.) a third sample was pulled and averaged with one of the two previous samples from which it did not differ by more than $\frac{1}{16}$ inch. In cases where more than three samples had to be pulled the same procedure was followed.

Each day before starting, samples from length standards were pulled and measured in order to assure accuracy in determining staple length.

In total, samples from 26 plants of the Florida 1377 parent, 41 plants of the D.P.L. 45-867 parent, 24 plants of the F_1 progeny, and 1,388 plants of the F_2 progeny were stapled.

As the determination of fiber length was made for a plant the rest of the cotton from this plant was placed in its own bag, properly labeled, for further fiber studies. This was done for each plant.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE RESULTS AND CALCULATION OF STATISTICAL VALUES

A frequency distribution table and curve for the parents, F_1 and F_2 generations of this cross was prepared to show the nature of segregation and other facts about the mode of inheritance of length of fiber. The length classes corresponded to the actual length measurements obtained, thus the class interval was 0.03 inch, except in a few classes where 0.04 inch was taken. The mean, standard deviation, and coefficient of variability were calculated for parents, F_1 and F_2 populations.

An attempt was made to estimate the minimum number of genes differentiating the parents. Two methods were used for this, as follows. First, the estimate was made on the basis of the frequency of recovery of parental genotypes. In this case, any F_2 plant which is equal to or exceeds the mean of either parent, in length, is classified as a parental genotype, except when the following situation is involved.

When dominance is involved, only recoveries of recessive parental genotypes are used as a basis for estimating the number of genes. The ratio at which parental genotypes are recovered in an F_2 population is an indication of the number of genes segregating in the population for the particular character being studied. If 1 out of 16 F_2 plants proves to be a homozygous parent genotype there is an indication of segregation of two pairs of genes; likewise, 1 in 64 will indicate three pairs of genes segregating for that character in the population, and so on.

The other method used for estimating the number of genes differentiating the parents was by the use of the Castle-Wright formula. This is given as:

$$\text{Minimum number of genes} = \frac{D^2}{8(s_{F_2}^2 - s_{F_1}^2)}$$

where, D = difference between parent means,

$s_{F_1}^2$ = variance for the F_1 population, and

$s_{F_2}^2$ = variance for the F_2 population.

As already indicated the formula gives only an estimate of the minimum number of genes by which the parents differ.

On the basis of the number of genes differentiating the parents, an estimate of the average contribution per pair of genes to the expression of the character was made.

The nature of gene action involved in the inheritance of fiber length was also studied to determine whether it was arithmetic or geometric.

Actual means of F_1 and F_2 populations were compared with their respective calculated arithmatic and geometric means to determine which one they fitted more closely. The following formulas were used to calculate the expected arithmetic and geometric means.

$$\text{Expected arithmetic mean of } F_1 = \frac{\text{mean of } P_1 + \text{mean of } P_2}{2};$$

$$\text{expected geometric mean of } F_1 = \sqrt{\text{mean of } P_1 \times \text{mean of } P_2};$$

$$\text{expected arithmetic mean of } F_2 = \frac{\text{mean of } P_1 + 2 \text{ (mean } F_1) + \text{mean } P_2}{4}$$

and

$$\text{expected geometric mean of } F_2 = \sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2} \text{ (mean } P_1 + \text{mean } P_2) \text{ mean } F_1}$$

where P_1 and P_2 represent the two parents.

Heritability of fiber length was also studied. Heritability is that portion of total variance which is due to genetic variance alone. In other words it is the ratio of genetic variance to total variance, and it can range between 0 and 100 percent though neither extreme is likely to be reached. From F_2 data heritability can be estimated from the following formula:

$$H(F_2) = \frac{s_G^2}{s_G^2 + s_E^2} \times 100 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{s_G^2}{s_{F_2}^2} \times 100$$

where $H(F_2)$ represents heritability in the F_2,

s_G^2 = genetic variance in the F_2;

s_E^2 = environmental variance in the F_2; and

$s_{F_2}^2$ = total variance in the F_2, i.e., genetic plus environmental variances.

Environmental variance (s_E^2) was calculated by averaging the variance of the two parents, i.e. $\frac{s_{P_1}^2 + s_{P_2}^2}{2}$ where $s_{P_1}^2$ and $s_{P_2}^2$ represent the variances of the two parents. Variance in F_2 is due to both environmental and genetic effects. Thus, a measure of the genetic variance (s_G^2) was obtained by subtracting environmental variance from the total variance of F_2, i.e., $s_G^2 = s_{F_2}^2 - s_E^2$.

FIBER LENGTH AS RELATED TO PERIMETER, WALL THICKNESS, AND FINENESS

Measurements of fiber fineness and immaturity obtained by use of the Arealometer were used for calculating perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness. These measurements were made by Mohammed Ali Bishr.

Perimeter (p) of fiber, expressed in microns was calculated from the formula $p = 12566\ I/A$ (microns), where I = immaturity ratio, and A, the low-resistance Arealometer reading (mm.^{2}/mm.^{3} or mm.$^{-1}$). Wall thickness (t), expressed in microns, was calculated from the formula

$$t = \frac{1000T}{A} \text{ (microns)},$$

where T (wall-thickness factor) $= 2/1 + \sqrt{1 - 1/I}$ (dimensionless number) and A, the low-resistance Arealometer reading, (mm.^{2}/mm.^{3} or mm.$^{-1}$).

Weight fineness (W), expressed as micrograms per inch, was calculated from the formula, $W = 38.6\ p/A$, micrograms/inch, where p = perimeter in microns, and A is as in the above formulas.

The association of fiber length with perimeter, wall thickness and weight fineness was studied by use of methods of linear correlation.

For calculating the correlation coefficients, 10 F_2 plants from each of the different length classes were picked at random. In those length classes with fewer than 10 plants, all the plants were taken.

The total correlation, r, was calculated from the formula

$$r = \frac{S(xy) - (Sx)(Sy)/n}{\sqrt{(S(x^2) - (Sx)^2/n)(S(y^2) - (Sy)^2/n}}$$

where S stands for summation, x for one of the variables, y for the other variable, and n for the number of observations of each variable.

To determine whether the association between these characters was real or not, partial correlation coefficients were calculated. Partial correlation is the correlation between two variables when a third one is eliminated as a factor influencing both of them.

Partial correlation was calculated from the formula

$$r_{12.3} = \frac{r_{12} - (r_{13} \times r_{23})}{\sqrt{(1 - r_{13}^2)(1 - r_{23}^2)}}$$

where $r_{12.3}$ = partial correlation between variables 1 and 2 when variable 3 is held constant;

r_{12} = total correlation between variables 1 and 2;

r_{13} = total correlation between variables 1 and 3; and

r_{23} = total correlation between variables 2 and 3.

The multiple correlation was also calculated. Multiple correlations measure the degree to which one dependent variable is associated with or influenced by two or more other variables.

The multiple correlation value was calculated from the formula

$$1 - (R_{1.23})^2 = (1 - r_{12}^2)(1 - r_{13.2}^2)$$

where $R_{1.23}$ = multiple correlation of variables 2 and 3 with variable one;

r_{12} = total correlation between variables 1 and 2; and

$r_{13.2}$ = partial correlation between variables 1 and 3 when the influence of variable 2 is removed.

The regression coefficient, b, was determined from the formula

$$b = \frac{S(xy) - (Sx)(Sy)/n}{S(x^2) - (Sx)^2/n}$$

where S stands for summation, x for one of the variables, the independent one, y for the other variable, the dependent one, and n for the number of observations of each variable.

To illustrate more clearly the degree of association between length and perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness, scatter diagrams were prepared for length and perimeter, length and wall thickness, and length and weight fineness.

Regression values can be used for predicting different values of one variable for different values of the other. This can be done from the equation: $Y = \bar{y} + b(x - \bar{x})$, where Y is any predicted value of the y variable for any value x of the other variable; $\bar{y}$ is the mean of the values of the y variable and $\bar{x}$ that of the x variable as obtained from the experimental data; and b is the regression of y on x.

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

The inheritance of fiber length and its association with fiber perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness was studied in a cross between Upland varieties Florida 1377 and D.P.L. 45-867.

Plants of both parents, F_1 and F_2 from this cross were grown in the field in 1952. Cotton samples from each plant of these populations were analyzed for staple length in the laboratory. In addition, they were analyzed for specific area and immaturity, and subsequently fiber perimeter, wall thickness of fiber, and weight fineness were calculated.

GENETIC ANALYSIS OF STAPLE LENGTH

Like other quantitative characters, staple length is the end result of the interaction of a large number of genes under particular environmental conditions.

TABLE 3.—*Frequency distribution of staple length for parents F_1 and F_2 in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross*

Population	Number of plants in length classes (inches) indicated																												
	0.56	0.59	0.62	0.66	0.69	0.72	0.75	0.78	0.81	0.84	0.87	0.91	0.94	0.97	1.00	1.03	1.06	1.09	1.12	1.16	1.19	1.22	1.25	1.28	1.31	1.34	1.37	1.41	1.44	1.47
Florida 1377	3	7	11	4	1																									
D.P.L. 45-867																								1	3	12	15	6	3	1
F_1															3	4	9	5	2	1										
F_2								4	5	12	37	54	74	95	172	147	194	133	207	84	76	28	48	9	7		2			

TABLE 4.—*Statistical data for staple length in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross*

Population	Number of plants	Mean	Standard deviation (*s*)	Coefficient of variation (C.V.)
		Inches		*Percent*
Florida 1377	26	0.61	0.033	5.42
D.P.L. 45-867	41	1.37	.040	2.91
F_1	24	1.06	.039	3.72
F_2	1388	1.06	.096	9.07

Altogether the length study included 26 Florida 1377, 41 D.P.L. 45-867, 24 F_1 and 1388 F_2 plants. The parent plants were obtained from selfed progenies of the specific plants used in original crosses from which the F_1 and F_2 were derived.

The classified data obtained from the parents, F_1 and F_2 populations are presented in table 3 as frequency distributions for fiber length. The statistical data comprising number of plants studied, arithmetic mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variability for the parents, F_1 and F_2 population are presented in table 4.

In one of the parents, variety Florida 1377, fiber length varied from 0.56 to 0.69 inch, a range of 0.13 inch, (table 3). In this parent, the standard deviation, (*s*), was 0.033 which led to a coefficient of variability of 5.42 percent. The variation in fiber length in D.P.L. 45-867 spread from 1.28 to 1.47 inches, a range of 0.19 inch. This led to a standard deviation, (*s*), of 0.04 and a coefficient of variability of 2.91. This indicates that the variation of the Florida 1377 was somewhat higher, almost twice as much as that of the D.P.L. 45-867. To some extent, the greater variation in the short-fibered parent may be accounted for by chance variation resulting from hand-stapling, as short fibers are more difficult to staple, and thus more subject to a greater amount of chance variation. However, this variation was probably mostly due to the influence of environment, as the parent plants used were obtained after a number of consecutive selfings and thus were supposed to be relatively homozygous.

As shown in table 4, the mean length of the fiber of the Florida 1377 parent was 0.61 inch and that of the D.P.L. 45-867 parent was 1.37 inch. Thus the long-fiber parent was 2.2 times longer than the short-fiber parent. This mean difference in fiber length between the parents is an indication of the extreme genetic differences between them, representing almost the maximum genetic range in fiber length in Upland cottons.

The 24 F_1 plants varied from 1.00 to 1.16 inches in staple length, with a mean of 1.06 inches. The standard deviation was 0.039 and the coefficient of variability of 3.72 percent. Presumably the parents were homozygous, so this variation in the F_1 plants is the result of environmental influences. In fact the variation is reasonably small and within the limits of expectations. The mean of the F_1 population, 1.06 inch, was significantly higher than the mean of the parents, 0.99 inch.

The F_2 population numbered 1,388 plants which varied from 0.78 inch to 1.37 inches in staple length, with segregation following a unimodal distribution resembling a normal curve. Segregation for genes controlling staple length can be seen more clearly when presented graphically. The data for the distribution of the F_2 population together with the F_1 and parents are presented in figure 1. The distortions in the shape of the curve for F_2 are presumed to be the result of chance variations from hand-stapling.

The results obtained for the F_2 population are otherwise typical for the segregation of a quantitative character. These results fell into 19 length classes, a large number of classes, typifying the behavior of quantitative characters involving a large number of genes.

The standard deviation of the F_2 population was 0.096 as compared with

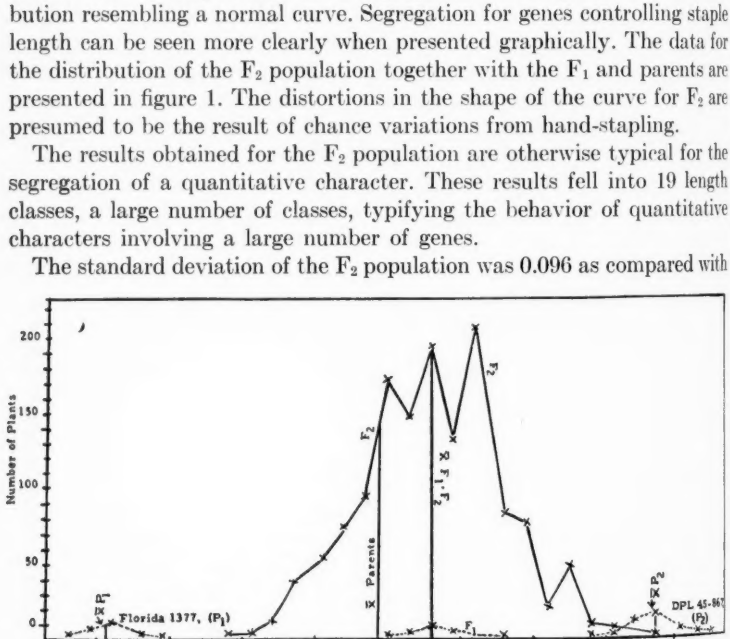

FIG. 1.—Frequency distribution of staple length in inches for parents, F_1, and F_2, in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross.

0.033, 0.04, and 0.039 for Florida 1377 and D.P.L. 45-867, the parents, and the F_1 progeny, respectively. The coefficient of variation in F_2 was 9.07-percent as compared with 5.42, 2.91, and 3.72 percent for Florida 1377, D.P.L. 45-867, and the F_1, respectively. As expected in an F_2 population, the degree of variation was much higher than for either of the two parents or the F_1. In the parents and the F_1, the variation is assumed to be the result of the influence of environment, whereas in the F_2, where segregation occurs, it is due to both genetic and environmental influences and their interaction.

Based on the results obtained for the F_2 population, fiber length is considered to behave as a quantitative character involving a large number of genes. From these results information regarding the occurrence and degree of dominance, the approximate number of genes by which the parents differed with respect to this character, the nature of gene action, and heritability of the character was obtained.

Degree of dominance

In order to determine the occurrence and degree of dominance the means of the F_1 and F_2 were compared with the arithmetic average of the parents. The mean of the parents was 0.99 inch while the F_1 and F_2 had identical means of 1.06 inches.

Quantitative characters are usually characterized by absence of dominance. With absence of dominance, the expected mean of the F_2 population should not differ from that of the F_1, or that of the parents. In this cross the difference between the mean of the parents and that of the F_1 and F_2 was significant, so it can be concluded that partial dominance for long staple over short staple was involved. This is also shown by the frequency distribution of the F_2 population presented in table 3. The distribution shows that a total of 1,107 plants exceeded the mean length of the parents while only 281 plants were shorter than the mean length of the parents. These 1,107 plants longer than the average length of the parents represent 80 percent of the total F_2 population. Moreover 18 plants had a length within the range of the long-fiber parent, and of these, 2 were as long as its mean length. The longest fiber segregate was 2.20 times that of the short parent. Also the modal class fell in the 1.12-inch length class, 0.06 inch in excess of the mean.

On the other hand, none of the F_2 plants was short enough to reach the range of the short-fiber parent. The shortest F_2 segregate was 1.28 times longer than the mean of the short-fiber parent. In fact there was a gap of three length classes, or 0.09 inch, between the shortest F_2 plants and the longest plants of the short-fiber parent.

There was also a difference of 0.17 inch between the shortest F_2 plants and the mean of the short-fiber parent.

Additional evidence on the occurrence of partial dominance in this cross can be obtained from the examination of figure 1, presenting the frequency curve of the parents, F_1 and F_2 populations. The curve is skewed toward the long-fiber parent, D.P.L. 45-867, shifting the mean length of the F_2 population, to 1.06 inches in contrast to the average length of the parents of 0.99 inch. The modal class has also been shifted to 1.12 inches.

Thus all of the evidence obtained from this cross points to the occurrence of partial dominance of long fiber over short fiber. The presence of partial dominance of long fiber would handicap selection for long fiber in the F_2. The primary objective in selection for long fiber is to obtain the desired degree of fiber length in a homozygous condition. But as partial dominance is involved in determining long-fiber length, a large amount of segregation in succeeding generations will be expected for many of the plants selected in the F_2 for long fiber. Long-fibered selections of a heterozygous nature might give rise to short-fibered segregates. In contrast, selection for short fiber would be relatively easy, due to a lower degree of heterozygosity in them. Thus partial dominance would not constitute such a handicap in selection of short fiber.

Estimate of number of genes involved

The exact number of genes affecting a quantitative character such as fiber length cannot be determined. However, an estimate of the number of genes involved can be made. Two methods were used in estimating number of genes, by which the parents differed for this character.

The first method was based on the relative frequency of parental genotypes recovered in the F_2 population, taking as parental genotypes those plants identical to or exceeding the mean of the parents in the expression of the character being studied.

In the F_2 population of the Florida 1377 $\times$ D.P.L. 45-867 cross, two plants were as long as the mean of the long-fibered parent, D.P.L.45-867. Length of fiber in these plants may have resulted from environmental influence interacting with genetic factors for length. Moreover, due to partial dominance, heterozygous plants are shifted towards the long-fiber parent. As a result of partial dominance and environmental effects, some plants, nonparental as to genotype, may appear to be similar to the long-fiber parent. Thus a partial dominance is involved in determining long-staple length, it is necessary to use the recoveries of the recessive parental genotype to estimate number of genes by which the parents differ. As already discussed, partial dominance tends to increase the frequency of long-staple plants, shifting the frequency distribution towards the long-staple parent.

The number of plants studied in this F_2 population totalled 1,388. For segregating F_2 populations, the frequency of recovery of parental genotypes is 1 in 16, when two pairs of genes are involved. Similarly, for five pairs of genes the frequency of recovery of parental genotypes is 1 in 1,024. But in this population of 1,388 plants not a single plant was recovered as short as the mean of the short-fiber parent, Florida 1377. From this evidence we can conclude that the parents probably differed by five or more pairs of genes.

Furthermore, none of the F_2 plants approached the upper range in length of the Florida 1377 parent. Moreover there was a difference of 0.17 inch between the mean length of the Florida 1377 parent, 0.61 inch, and the shortest class of the F_2 population, which measured 0.78 inch. Only four plants fell in this shortest class. If six pairs of genes were the case, the expected frequency of parental genotypes in the F_2 population would be 1 in 4,096 plants, but actually twice or more this number of plants would be required in order to obtain this parental genotype.

The evidence is not suitable for estimating by this method the number of genes segregating for fiber length in this population. However, we can conclude that at least, there was a difference of more than five pairs of genes between the parents.

An estimate of the minimum number of genes segregating for fiber length in the F_2 population can also be obtained by use of the Castle-Wright formula, referred to under Experimental Methods. This formula is based on the degree by which the variance in the F_2 exceeds the variance in the F_1. The variance in the F_2 consists of both genetic and environmental variance, while the variance in F_1 is attributed to the influence of environment, as the parents were supposed to be homozygous.

The formula involves the assumptions of equal additive effects of genes, none of which are linked with any others, and of homozygosity of all genes in one parent and of their alleles in the other parent. These conditions are rather extreme and very rare under actual conditions. It also assumes that the parents involved represent the genetic extremes within the Upland cottons. In this cross this assumption is quite closely fulfilled. In this F_2 population the evidence obtained points to the occurrence of partial dominance, so one of the assumptions of the formula is ruled out. This assumption of absence of dominance leads to an underestimation of the number of genes by which the parents differ. However, we can apply it to obtain a general estimate of the minimum number of genes involved.

The estimate of the minimum number of genes segregating for staple length as obtained by applying this formula was 9.38 pairs. Presumably this is the closest estimate obtainable of the minimum number of genes by which the parents in this cross differed. It can be concluded that the parents

differed by not less than nine pairs of genes, but probably the difference is greater, as the formula only gives an indication of the minimum number of genes.

With this large number of genes involved, no parental genotypes are expected to occur in the F_2 grown, as the number of plants required in the population would be too large, almost impracticable to grow.

Estimated average contribution per pair of genes to length of fiber

We have already indicated that the estimated minimum number of pairs of genes involved in the difference between the parents in this cross is nine. The actual number of pairs of genes involved may have been higher.

Thus the estimated average contribution per pair of genes will be almost valueless as it will be only an approximate value.

With a mean difference of 0.76 inch in fiber length between the parents, the average contribution of each pair of genes would be 0.08 inch, assuming a minimum difference of nine pairs of genes involved between the two parents.

This figure is not of much help, as we do not know whether arithmetic or geometric gene action governs the genetic contribution to fiber length.

Nature of gene action

Results from crosses between types differing in quantitative characters have been extremely varied, due undoubtedly to complex anatomical and physiological conditions as well as to those of a genetic nature and to those resulting from environmental influences. Attempts have been made to analyze data for evidence indicating whether the gene action is more nearly arithmetic or geometric in effect, though neither one is expected to apply strictly to all genes or to all organisms.

The data are inconclusive to determine the type of gene action involved. Actual means of the F_1 and F_2 populations as compared with their respective expected arithmetic and geometric means as referred to under Experimental Methods, are presented in table 5.

The actual mean of the F_1 is significantly different from the expected arithmetic and geometric means.

The actual mean of the F_2 is also significantly higher than the expected

TABLE 5.—*Actual means and expected arithmetic and geometric means of the F_1 and F_2 populations in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross*

Population	Actual means	Arithmetic means (expected)	Geometric means (expected)
F_1	1.06	0.99	0.91
F_2	1.06	1.02	1.02

arithmetic and geometric means, both of which are alike. These were a little closer to the actual or observed means.

With this information it is impossible to determine the nature of the gene action involved, whether arithmetic or geometric.

Relative influence of environment and heredity on fiber length

Plant improvement through selection following hybridization depends on the relative efficiency with which genetic differences among individuals in the segregating population can be identified. Although environmental effects, plus complications resulting from other genetic phenomena, may interfere with the identification of genotypes, knowledge of the heritability of a character should be secured in order for selection to be practiced as efficiently as possible. The greater the degree of heritability, the smaller the relative variation because of the influence of environmental factors. Heritability gives an indication of the stability of a character as regards its variation due to environmental factors.

Heritability is expressed on a percentage basis, and the value obtained for this character was 85 percent. This is a high value, though a reasonable one for length of fiber, which is fairly high in stability. This indicates that most of the variation in the F_2 population was caused by genetic variation and only 15 percent of this variation resulted from the influence of the environment. The maximum degree of heterozygosity occurs in this population and it is fairly reliable to select for fiber length in this population as indicated by its high heritability value. However, it should be considered that partial dominance is involved in the inheritance of fiber length and this will be a complication in selection, as already indicated.

ASSOCIATION OF CHARACTERS

Phenotypic expression of a visible or easily measured character and its association with an invisible one, or one difficult to measure, may be useful in selecting more effectively in a segregating population.

This association may be caused by linkage of genes, physiological association, or pleiotropic effects of genes, or any combinations of these. However, when two quantitative characters are closely associated, it will be difficult independently to transfer one of them to another genotype. Since some characters are extremely unstable because of environmental factors, their association with one or more stable characters can be extremely useful in selecting for the more stable character. At the same time, this may result in selection for the unstable character.

Sometimes, however, these associations involve a desirable and an undesirable character, denoting the possible occurrence of deleterious genetic linkages, which obviously are causes of difficulties in a breeding program.

To determine the associations and interrelations of the characters studied, correlation and regression coefficients between characters were calculated for each variable with each of the others, using fiber-character data from 167 randomly selected F_2 plants, as shown in table 6.

A random sample of 10 plants from each length class in the frequency distribution was studied in order to measure the association among some important fiber characters, namely, fiber length, perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness. All the plants in those length classes with a frequency of less than 10 plants were included in this study.

Frequency distributions of the 167 F_2 plants studied for length, perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness are presented in table 7. As shown by these data, a marked degree of variation in the characters studied occurred among these F_2 plants which, of course, is essential for the determination of any association among them.

This is also shown graphically in the frequency distributions presented in figures 2, 3, and 4.

Table 8 presents the number of plants in each length class and the average perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness of the group of plants included in each length class.

These distributions appear to be normal. The data show a striking tendency of these characters to vary together, suggesting the existence of some association between them.

In all cases a similar relationship seems to exist between the characters concerned. Changes in fiber length in one direction appear to correspond with changes in the other characters in the opposite direction.

Correlation of characters

The simple and partial correlation coefficients between characters for the 167 F_2 plants are presented in table 9.

LENGTH AND PERIMETER.—A correlation coefficient of -0.319 was obtained for these characters. This is a highly significant negative correlation, meaning that as length of fiber changes in one direction perimeter changes in the other. However, the magnitude of the correlation coefficient reveals that length was not closely associated with perimeter.

The association between these fiber characters is also evident from the scatter diagram presented in figure 5.

Figure 5 shows staple length-perimeter relationships, presenting a wide range of dispersion. A somewhat smaller number of plants were found to be above average in length but below average in perimeter. About 32 plants (or 20 percent) were of the former type, which is a new combination of these characters. The latter type which is the D.P.L. 45-867 combination

TABLE 6.—*Data on fiber characteristics of 167 F_2 plants selected at random in each length class for the study of relationships among them*

Plant No.	Length	Perimeter (P)	Wall thickness (t)	Weight fineness (W)
	Inches	μ	μ	*μg./inch*
92-16	0.78	50.86	3.93	5.84
99-4	.78	50.62	3.71	5.58
107-30	.78	54.94	3.04	5.33
116-38	.78	55.19	3.42	5.88
95-5	.81	55.72	2.81	5.07
95-44	.81	59.46	4.01	7.24
102-13	.81	50.59	3.20	5.01
114-28	.81	56.58	3.17	5.72
118-36	.81	55.31	2.85	5.11
89-42	.84	52.91	2.89	4.89
91-34	.84	51.08	3.44	5.34
95-43	.84	57.22	3.75	6.57
96-4	.84	50.04	4.01	5.78
98-24	.84	54.46	2.47	4.44
99-38	.84	54.63	3.68	6.11
100-30	.84	57.09	3.16	5.75
102-6	.84	47.28	3.30	4.70
102-9	.84	50.40	3.44	5.27
110-7	.84	51.30	3.87	5.86
92-7	.87	42.94	3.92	4.64
95-25	.87	48.53	3.59	4.96
97-36	.87	50.63	2.46	4.08
98-22	.87	54.27	2.24	4.08
100-18	.87	53.81	2.94	5.05
102-7	.87	49.30	3.95	5.61
105-26	.87	52.61	3.33	5.41
110-16	.87	55.80	4.01	6.69
115-5	.87	55.60	3.75	6.33
118-60	.87	54.37	3.24	5.53
91-35	.91	51.92	3.29	5.27
94-3b	.91	48.96	3.30	4.91
100-31	.91	48.02	3.85	5.33
102-19	.91	53.18	3.37	5.53
106-4	.91	48.30	3.30	4.84
111-17a	.91	45.59	4.36	5.36
114-7	.91	47.30	2.79	4.14
117-14	.91	56.28	3.93	6.66
120-22	.91	54.16	3.65	6.01
123-18	.91	55.27	3.72	6.26
89-58-b	.94	47.46	3.59	5.02
93-8	.94	46.60	4.25	5.46
95-10	.94	56.63	3.04	5.53
97-21	.94	48.47	3.07	4.60
99-37	.94	48.85	3.69	5.31
103-9	.94	51.50	3.47	5.43
105-27	.94	50.20	3.11	4.87

TABLE 6.—*Continued*

Plant No.	Length	Perimeter (*P*)	Wall thickness (*t*)	Weight fineness (*W*)
	Inches	μ	μ	μg./inch
107-35	0.94	54.86	3.75	6.24
111-24	.94	56.44	2.81	5.15
116-55	.94	58.15	3.08	5.77
91-7	.97	56.78	2.71	5.02
93-17	.97	47.50	3.48	4.91
95-40	.97	53.18	3.37	5.53
99-18	.97	54.23	3.24	5.51
101-4	.97	47.12	3.56	4.94
107-16	.97	46.61	3.18	4.51
113-3	.97	48.43	3.31	4.87
118-35	.97	57.09	2.67	5.03
123-14	.97	46.67	3.35	4.68
126-42	.97	54.93	2.39	4.37
92-8	1.00	47.60	3.21	4.64
94-6	1.00	46.45	3.24	4.54
97-4	1.00	52.72	3.27	5.37
100-22	1.00	50.00	3.37	5.12
102-2	1.00	51.49	2.65	4.43
106-21	1.00	51.58	2.60	4.35
111-13	1.00	54.50	2.89	5.07
115-9	1.00	60.26	2.47	5.00
119-27	1.00	51.63	3.20	5.15
124-7	1.00	53.03	4.01	6.26
90-2	1.03	45.15	2.66	3.77
96-5	1.03	52.88	3.02	5.05
99-12	1.03	47.90	2.57	3.96
110-8	1.03	53.43	2.80	4.82
114-29	1.03	56.46	3.37	5.97
117-5	1.03	41.41	4.15	4.54
120-37	1.03	48.99	3.70	5.34
122-18	1.03	46.89	3.16	4.50
123-24	1.03	55.12	3.18	5.55
126-4	1.03	55.32	2.59	4.72
91-28	1.06	51.24	2.58	4.29
92-37	1.06	42.24	4.04	4.60
94-4	1.06	48.35	2.54	3.94
98-5	1.06	50.69	2.73	4.45
101-5	1.06	52.24	3.57	5.66
106-13a	1.06	50.14	2.96	4.65
111-10	1.06	59.47	2.86	5.57
115-20	1.06	58.11	2.86	5.43
121-26	1.06	52.22	3.35	5.40
127-3	1.06	47.61	3.82	5.23
95-42	1.09	49.54	3.74	5.46
111-23	1.09	52.97	2.96	5.01
116-36	1.09	49.49	2.62	4.18

TABLE 6.—*Continued*

Plant No.	Length	Perimeter (*P*)	Wall thickness (*t*)	Weight fineness (*W*)
	Inches	*μ*	*μ*	*μg./inch*
120-40	1.09	45.58	3.11	4.31
121-29	1.09	49.81	2.76	4.38
123-30	1.09	51.68	2.36	4.02
123-56	1.09	51.96	2.67	4.51
124-38	1.09	47.50	3.48	4.91
126-7	1.09	44.16	3.41	4.40
127-40	1.09	51.96	3.40	5.42
91-9	1.12	51.55	2.82	4.64
95-32	1.12	50.66	2.33	3.90
97-33	1.12	42.10	3.59	4.25
105-4	1.12	54.75	2.55	4.60
116-8	1.12	51.47	2.94	4.79
117-40	1.12	52.82	2.77	4.71
120-15	1.12	48.14	2.99	4.48
121-46	1.12	51.68	3.39	5.36
123-60	1.12	45.75	3.08	4.28
127-15b	1.12	46.45	3.24	4.54
91-1	1.16	45.03	3.07	4.21
93-23	1.16	51.28	2.69	4.44
100-19	1.16	51.10	2.92	4.72
115-17	1.16	55.07	2.77	4.96
118-8	1.16	50.91	2.56	4.23
120-30	1.16	47.88	3.03	4.48
121-40	1.16	51.37	3.51	5.48
123-7	1.16	51.47	2.59	4.33
124-25	1.16	47.08	3.64	5.01
126-36	1.16	47.87	2.62	4.00
94-10	1.19	48.23	2.32	3.66
105-30	1.19	55.57	3.04	5.39
112-9	1.19	45.99	2.91	4.14
116-21	1.19	56.66	3.24	5.80
117-11	1.19	51.60	2.95	4.81
119-11	1.19	44.97	3.14	4.25
121-6	1.19	48.70	2.97	4.50
122-41	1.19	51.93	3.16	5.11
123-39	1.19	44.81	3.38	4.47
127-29	1.19	53.56	2.81	4.84
91-22	1.22	50.99	2.95	4.75
113-14b	1.22	57.72	2.55	4.89
116-35	1.22	51.24	2.96	4.80
118-49	1.22	53.54	3.06	5.18
119-7	1.22	45.45	2.98	4.14
122-42	1.22	46.90	2.86	4.17
123-25	1.22	47.12	3.09	4.46
126-27	1.22	49.68	3.25	4.96
127-30	1.22	49.18	2.93	4.53

TABLE 6.—*Continued*

Plant No.	Length	Perimeter (P)	Wall thickness (t)	Weight fineness (W)
	Inches	μ	μ	$\mu g./inch$
127-41	1.22	47.93	3.27	4.77
96-23	1.25	49.21	2.84	4.43
105-14	1.25	55.69	2.60	4.79
117-20	1.25	53.63	2.45	4.33
118-31	1.25	51.23	2.92	4.74
120-56	1.25	46.75	2.96	4.28
122-13	1.25	48.26	2.99	4.50
123-31	1.25	50.49	2.76	4.45
123-65	1.25	49.91	2.88	4.55
124-54	1.25	49.81	3.20	4.92
127-6	1.25	54.48	2.77	4.90
91-42	1.28	43.45	2.97	3.92
98-30	1.28	45.64	2.69	3.86
120-21	1.28	52.21	2.92	4.87
121-23	1.28	50.80	3.42	5.28
121-43	1.28	48.98	2.83	4.38
122-3	1.28	47.37	2.83	4.20
123-34	1.28	45.53	3.07	4.25
124-10	1.28	48.04	2.87	4.32
126-25	1.28	52.71	2.95	4.96
117-35	1.31	47.68	2.72	4.11
117-48	1.31	54.36	2.54	4.56
119-21	1.31	54.35	2.77	4.88
121-44	1.31	46.35	2.73	3.97
121-39B	1.31	46.50	2.69	3.95
123-15	1.31	42.92	3.24	4.10
126-39	1.31	46.48	2.83	4.09
112-25	1.37	50.35	1.87	3.22
122-20	1.37	42.71	3.23	4.06

appeared in about 44 plants (or 26 percent). The same was true of the number of plants found below average in both characters. This type, also a new combination of these characters, appeared in about 30 plants (or 20 percent). Those of the Florida 1377 parental type, namely, those above average in perimeter, but below average in length, appeared in about 47 plants (or 28 percent).

Therefore, despite the significance of the correlation coefficient, the association obtained is not high. It can be noted from figure 5 that several plants with long fiber (1.25 inches) also had relatively large perimeters (above 50 μ). Consequently selections of F_2 plants with any combination of the two characters could probably be obtained without great difficulty.

TABLE 7.—*Frequency distribution of 167 F_2 plants studied for associations and interrelationships among the indicated fiber characters*

Length		Perimeter		Wall thickness		Weight fineness	
Classes	Plants in classes	Classes	Plants in classes	Classes	Plants in classes	Classes	Plants in classes
Inches	*Number*	*μ*	*Number*	*μ*	*Number*	*μg./inch*	*Number*
0.78	4	42	6	1.8	1	3.2	1
.81	5	44	4	2.0	—	3.4	—
.84	10	46	20	2.2	1	3.6	1
.87	10	48	31	2.4	8	3.8	3
.91	10	50	25	2.6	20	4.0	12
.94	10	52	33	2.8	28	4.2	15
.97	10	54	21	3.0	31	4.4	22
1.00	10	56	21	3.2	26	4.6	17
1.03	10	58	3	3.4	20	4.8	20
1.06	10	60	3	3.6	11	5.0	20
1.09	10			3.8	9	5.2	10
1.12	10			4.0	9	5.4	17
1.16	10			4.2	2	5.6	10
1.19	10			4.4	1	5.8	8
1.22	10					6.0	2
1.25	10					6.2	4
1.28	9					6.4	1
1.31	7					6.6	3
1.34	—					6.8	—
1.37	2					7.0	—
						7.2	1
Total.....	167		167		167		167

The negative association would not cause serious difficulties in a breeding program.

The partial correlation obtained for length and perimeter when wall thickness was held constant, was −0.459, a highly significant, negative one. This value indicates that a considerable association exists between length and perimeter. When wall thickness varies, this association appears to be smaller due to a greater association of wall thickness with length. It seems as if wall thickness somewhat affects the association between these characters.

The partial correlation obtained for length and perimeter when weight fineness was held constant, was 0.029, which is not significant. This value indicates a very low degree of association between length and perimeter when weight fineness is held constant. This was expected because perimeter

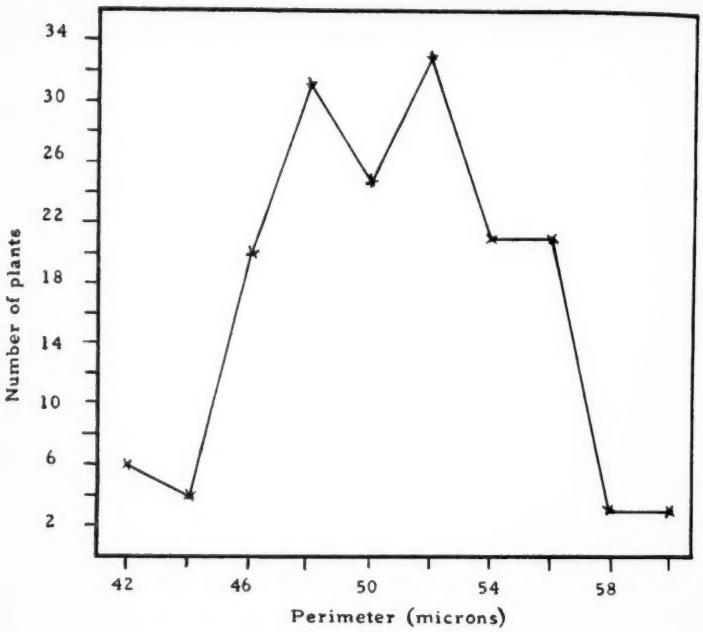

FIG. 2.—Frequency distribution of perimeter in microns for 167 random-selected F_2 plants in each length class in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross.

is a component of weight fineness. Thus, perimeter will not vary when weight fineness is held constant.

Weight fineness or fiber fineness, expressed in terms of "weight per inch" by cotton technologists, depends on two properties—that represented by the perimeter or diameter of the fiber, and that represented by the thickness of the fiber wall. In other words, perimeter and wall thickness of the cotton fiber are components or determiners of weight fineness. Perimeter is largely an inherited chacteristic, while wall thickness may be determined either by genetic or by environmental factors.

When weight fineness is held constant both perimeter and wall thickness are affected in their variation. If perimeter varies in one direction, wall thickness will vary correspondingly in the other, in order to hold weight fineness at a constant level. Thus, variations in perimeter and wall thickness are interdependent when weight fineness is held at a fixed level; variations in one of them will be accompanied by variations of the other in the opposite direction, independently of variations in fiber length. The effect

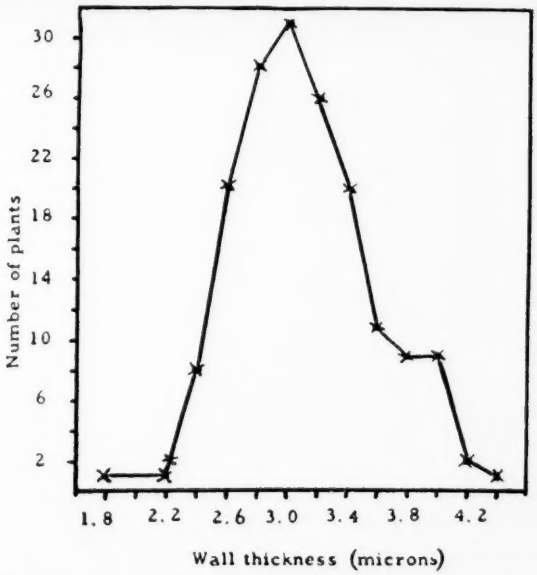

FIG. 3.—Frequency distribution of fiber-wall thickness in microns for 167 random-selected F_2 plants in each length class in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross.

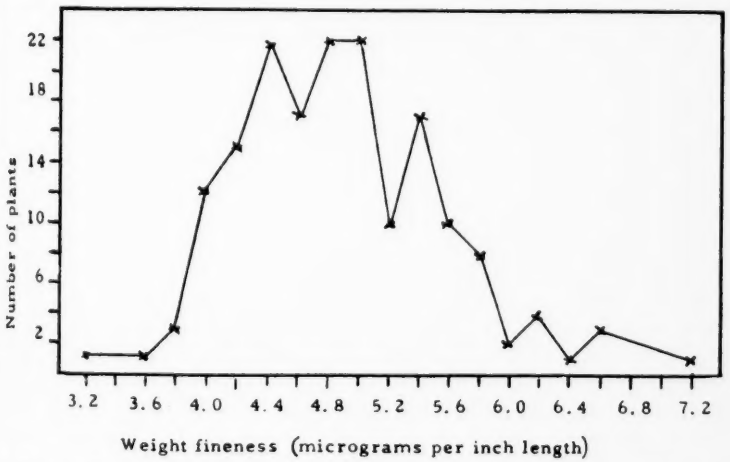

FIG. 4.—Frequency distribution of fiber-weight in micrograms per inch for 167 random-selected F_2 plants in each length class in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross.

TABLE 8.—*Fiber characters of 167 F_2 plants classed as to length*

Number of plants per length-class	Length	Average magnitude within each length-class		
		Perimeter	Wall thickness	Weight fineness
	Inches	μ	μ	μg./*inch*
4	0.78	52.90	3.52	5.66
5	.81	55.53	3.21	5.63
10	.84	52.64	3.40	5.47
10	.87	51.79	3.34	5.24
10	.91	50.90	3.56	5.43
10	.94	51.92	3.39	5.34
10	.97	51.25	3.13	4.94
10	1.00	51.93	3.09	4.99
10	1.03	50.35	3.12	4.82
10	1.06	51.23	3.13	4.92
10	1.09	49.46	3.05	4.66
10	1.12	49.54	2.97	4.55
10	1.16	49.91	2.94	4.59
10	1.19	50.20	2.99	4.70
10	1.22	49.97	2.99	4.66
10	1.25	50.95	2.84	4.59
9	1.28	48.30	2.95	4.45
7	1.31	48.38	2.79	4.24
2	1.37	46.53	2.55	3.64
Mean.....	1.06	50.75	3.12	4.89

TABLE 9.—*Simple and partial correlation coefficients involving several fiber characters of economic importance in Upland cotton*[1]

Characters correlated	Simple correlation coefficient	Character held constant	Partial correlation coefficient
Length and:			
Perimeter	−0.319**	Wall thickness	−0.459**
	−.319**	Weight fineness	.029
Wall thickness	−.434**	Perimeter	−.523**
	−.434**	Weight fineness	−.081
Weight fineness	−.568**	Perimeter	−.497**
	−.568**	Wall thickness	−.414**

[1] ** Significant at 1-percent level of probability. Levels of significance required: For simple correlation, 165 degrees of freedom at 5-percent level 0.153; for simple correlation, 165 degrees of freedom at 1-percent level 0.200; for partial correlatiol, 164 degrees of freedom at 5-percent level 0.153; for partial correlation, 164 degrees of freedom at 1-percent level 0.201.

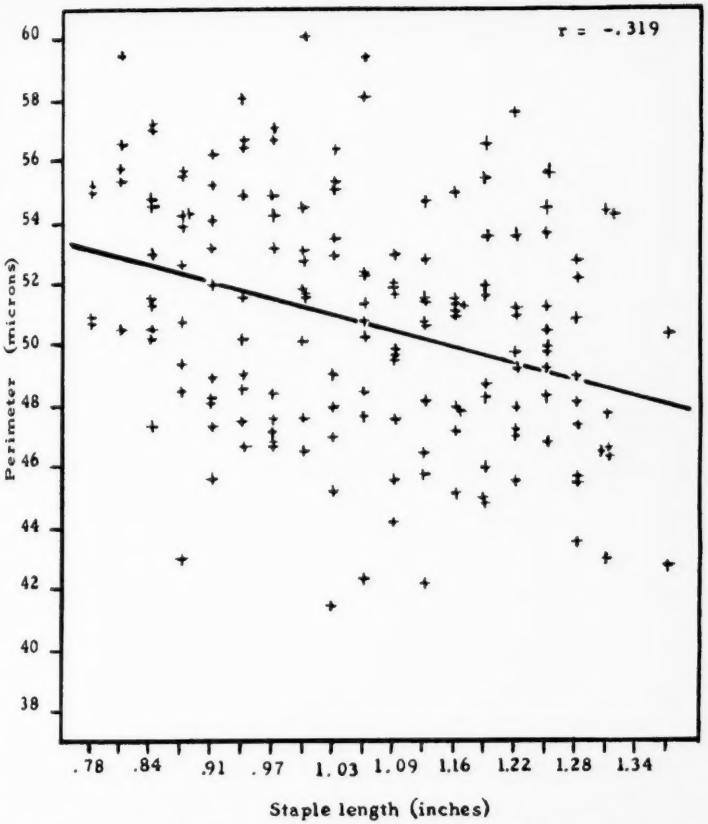

FIG. 5.—Scatter diagram of staple length-perimeter relationships for 167 random-selected F_2 plants in each length class in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross.

resulting from holding weight fineness constant affects variations in perimeter, reducing its association with length.

In conclusion, this association is not of much value in a breeding program. No difficulties should be encountered in obtaining any combinations of levels of expression of these two characters. However, certain difficulties may be encountered in obtaining combinations of extremely short fibers with small perimeter or extremely long fibers with large perimeter.

LENGTH AND WALL THICKNESS.—A highly significant correlation of −0.434 was obtained as a measure of the association of length of fiber and

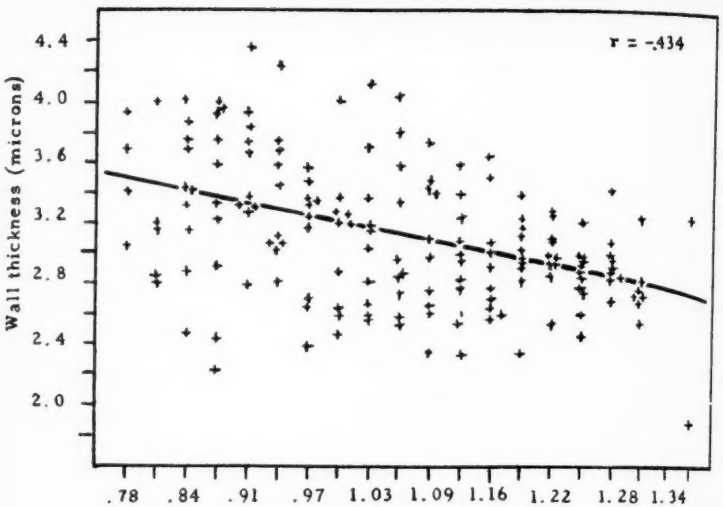

FIG. 6.—Scatter diagram of staple length-wall thickness relationships for 167 random-selected F_2 plants in each length class in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross.

wall thickness. This correlation indicates that changes in length of fiber are accompanied by changes in wall thickness in the opposite direction. The magnitude of the correlation coefficient reveals that length is appreciably associated with wall thickness.

The association is also evident from the scatter diagram presented in figure 6, which shows a somewhat strange relationship between length and wall thickness of fiber. For plants with fiber shorter than the mean length class, 1.06 inches, there is lower association with wall thickness than for plants with long fiber. Although most of the short-fibered plants had thicker than average walls, some of the short-staple plants were thin-walled types. On the other hand, essentially all F_2 plants with very long fiber, 1.25 inches or greater, had only thin to medium walls. No thick-walled fibers, 3.6 μ or greater, were very long. From this study, it appears perhaps impossible to combine the very long staple of the D.P.L. 45-867 parent with the thick fiber walls of the Florida 1377 parent.

The partial correlation coefficient obtained for length and wall thickness, holding perimeter constant, was -0.523. This is a highly significant value, negative in nature. This value indicates that a considerable true association

exists between length and wall thickness. But when weight fineness was held constant the partial correlation was 0.081, a nonsignificant one.

When perimeter is held constant the association between length and wall thickness is still higher. Variations in fiber perimeter seem to affect the association between length and wall thickness.

When perimeter varies, the association appears to be smaller in magnitude because of the association of length with perimeter. Perimeter, then, seems to affect the association between length and wall thickness. It bears the same relationship to the association between length and wall thickness as wall thickness does to the association between length and perimeter. Furthermore, wall thickness is more closely associated with length than perimeter, as both its simple and partial correlations with length are higher than those of perimeter with length.

This relationship between fiber length and wall thickness might be accounted for by various conditions. One of these might be the existence of linkage between the genes governing length of fiber and those governing wall thickness. In this case, as the association indicated by the correlation coefficient is negative, it appears as if genes for long fiber are associated with genes for thin fiber wall. Likewise the reverse condition would also appear to occur.

Another explanation of this negative relationship between length of fiber and wall thickness is of a physiological nature. Fiber-wall thickness is determined by the thickness of the secondary wall. The thickening of the secondary wall starts after the fiber has completed its elongation, through successive depositions of cellulose on the inner wall of the fiber. These consecutive coatings of cellulose would vary in thickness depending on the length of the fiber and also on its perimeter, besides the length of the period throughout which this process of cellulose deposition occurs. The greater the length and the perimeter of the fiber, the larger the area to be covered by these depositions of cellulose and thus the thinner these coatings will be. Likewise the reverse condition would also occur.

If the first condition, namely linkage, is the one responsible for the association between these two characters, some difficulty will be encountered in obtaining new combinations of these characters. Still any combinations of different levels of these two characters could be obtained in a large segregating population through crossing over.

However, if the association is the result of the physiological process of cellulose deposition on the inner wall of the fiber, the thickness of the cellulose coatings would be determined by the area of the fiber to be covered. Therefore, this would result in serious implications in a breeding program. As a probable result combinations of either high or low expressions of both characters could not be obtained.

However, as shown by the scatter diagram in figure 6, one of the two plants with the highest expression of fiber length in the F_2, had a wall thickness over the mean of the F_2 plants involved in this study. Likewise, one of the four plants with the lowest expression of length of fiber was below the mean of these F_2 plants as regards wall thickness. But wall thickness is subject to variations as the result of environmental influences, as is evident from experimental results which are not very reliable.

Length and weight fineness

A highly significant correlation coefficient of -0.568 was obtained for length and weight fineness.

This highly significant, negative correlation indicates that length of fiber is appreciably associated with weight fineness. This association implies that changes in length of fiber correspond with changes in weight fineness in the opposite direction.

The scatter diagram in figure 7 presents the relationships between these characters. About 21 (or 12 percent) plants were found above average, and 22 (or 15 percent) below in both characters. These two groups comprise the new combinations of the two characters. Parental combinations of the two characters were more frequent. About 58 (or 34 percent) plants were above average in weight fineness, but below average in length, as in the Florida 1377 parent. About 57 (or 34 percent) plants were above average in length, but below average in weight fineness as in the other parent D.P.L. 45-867.

As shown in figure 7, there is a wide range of dispersion among individuals below the mean-length class, 1.06 inches. For individuals with fiber length above the mean-length class, the association between length and weight fineness seems to be stronger.

The partial correlation coefficient obtained for length and weight fineness, holding perimeter constant, is -0.497, a highly significant value. When wall thickness is held constant, the partial correlation coefficient obtained is -0.414. This is also a highly significant value.

Although these partial correlations are highly significant, they are a little below the value of the simple correlations between length and weight fineness. This indicates that the strong association existing between length and weight fineness results from the association of length with perimeter and with wall thickness. As already mentioned, both of these are components of weight fineness; thus they contribute to the strong association between length and weight fineness. The association between them is still strong when perimeter is held constant. This is also the case when wall thickness is held constant. However, when wall thickness is held constant,

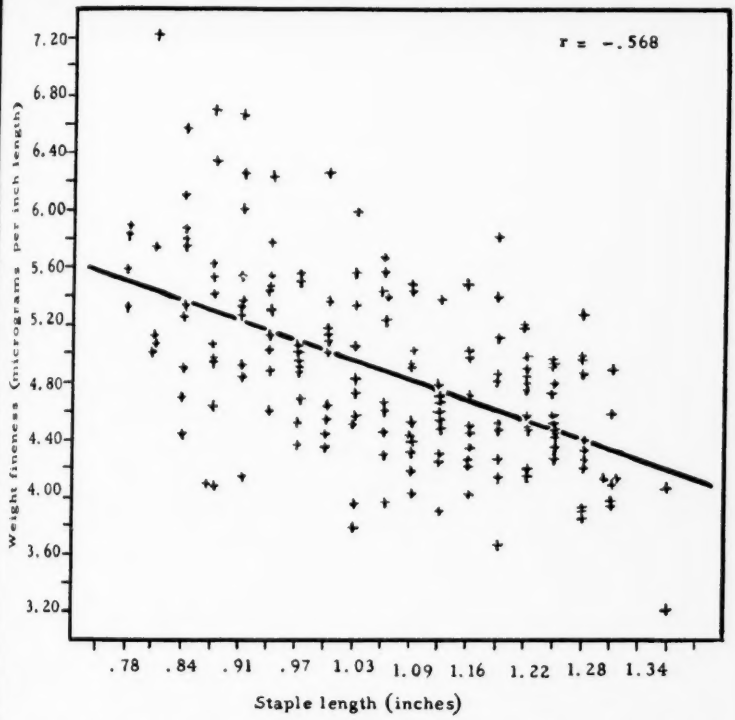

FIG. 7.—Scatter diagram of staple length-weight fineness relationships for 167 random-selected F_2 plants in each length class in the Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867 cross.

the association between them is lower than that obtained when perimeter is held constant. This suggests that wall thickness contributes more than perimeter to the appreciably high degree of association between length and weight fineness.

The relatively strong, negative association between length and weight fineness indicates that some difficulties may be encountered in obtaining combinations of long staple (from the D.P.L. 45-867 parent) with coarse fiber (from the Florida 1377). The same difficulties might be expected in in obtaining a combination of short and fine fiber. The association between these characters indicates that selection for longer fiber should reduce fiber weight. Likewise, selection for short fiber should increase fiber weight.

Multiple correlation

Multiple correlations measure the degree to which one dependent variable is associated with two or more other variables.

A multiple correlation of 0.59 was obtained for the association between length and the two dependent variables, perimeter and wall thickness. This value indicates a highly significant association among the characters.

Multiple correlations are used extensively in plant-breeding studies in order to find more stable characters associated with less stable ones. This is of great help in selecting more efficiently for the less stable characters.

Regression coefficients

The regression coefficients of perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness on length of fiber are presented in the following tabulation:

Characters	b[1]
Length and perimeter	−8.16**
Length and wall thickness	−1.27**
Length and weight fineness	−2.445**

[1] ** Highly significant. The significance of these regressions is tested by the significance of the correlations between the corresponding variables. As the correlations between them were highly significant, their regressions are also highly significant.

The significance of these regressions is identical with the significance of the correlations between them.

Regression of perimeter on length

A regression coefficient of −8.16 for perimeter on length was obtained. This means that for every inch increase in average length of fiber there will be a corresponding decrease of 8.16 μ in perimeter of the fibers. Likewise a decrease of 1 inch in length will be accompanied by an increase of 8.16 μ in perimeter.

Regression of wall thickness on length

A regression coefficient of −1.27 for wall thickness on perimeter was obtained. This indicates that for every change in average length of fiber of 1 inch, there will be a corresponding change of 1.27 μ in wall thickness in the opposite direction.

Regression of weight fineness on length

A regression coefficient of −2.445 for weight fineness on length was obtained. This means that for every change of 1 inch in average length in one direction there will be a corresponding change of −2.445 μg. per inch in weight fineness in the opposite direction.

TABLE 10.—*Predicted values of perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness at different levels of fiber length in contrast with observed values*

Length class (inches)	Observed mean perimeter	Predicted mean perimeter	Observed mean wall thickness	Predicted mean wall thickness	Observed mean weight fineness	Predicted mean weight fineness
	μ	μ	μ	μ	*μg./inch*	*μg./inch*
0.78	52.90	53.04	3.52	3.48	5.66	5.58
.81	55.53	52.79	3.21	3.44	5.63	5.50
.84	52.64	52.55	3.40	3.40	5.47	5.43
.87	51.79	52.30	3.34	3.37	5.24	5.36
.91	50.90	51.97	3.56	3.31	5.43	5.26
.94	51.92	51.73	3.39	3.28	5.34	5.19
.97	51.25	51.48	3.13	3.24	4.94	5.11
1.00	51.93	51.24	3.09	3.20	4.99	5.04
1.03	50.35	51.00	3.12	3.16	4.82	4.97
1.06	51.23	50.75	3.13	3.12	4.92	4.89
1.09	49.46	50.51	3.05	3.09	4.66	4.82
1.12	49.54	50.26	2.97	3.05	4.55	4.75
1.16	49.91	49.93	2.94	3.00	4.59	4.65
1.19	50.20	49.69	2.99	2.96	4.70	4.58
1.22	49.97	49.44	2.99	2.92	4.66	4.50
1.25	50.95	49.20	2.84	2.88	4.59	4.43
1.28	48.30	48.96	2.95	2.84	4.45	4.36
1.31	48.38	48.71	2.79	2.81	4.24	4.28
1.34	[1]	48.47	[1]	2.77	[1]	4.21
1.37	46.53	48.22	2.55	2.73	3.64	4.14

[1]Data not available.

PREDICTED VALUES OF PERIMETER, WALL THICKNESS, AND WEIGHT FINENESS DERIVED FROM THEIR RESPECTIVE REGRESSIONS ON LENGTH OF FIBER

Regression values can be used for predicting different values of one variable for different values of the other.

This has been done as shown in table 10. The equation for predicting these values has been referred to under Experimental Methods.

When the association between the characters is not too high the accuracy of the predicted values is not high either. This is apparent in table 10. The accuracy of the predicted values is also affected by chance variations. The predicted values for perimeter wall thickness and weight fineness are relatively accurate.

Also the more accurate the predictions, the more accurate will be the ranking of them as to magnitude. In the cases of perimeter and wall thickness the ranking as to magnitude is not so accurate. However, this ranking is remarkably accurate for weight fineness.

DISCUSSION

PARTIAL DOMINANCE OF LONG FIBER

Previous studies on the mode of inheritance of staple length in cotton show that quantitative inheritance is involved in the determination of this character.

Kearney (12), Kottur (13), Ware (22), Harland (7), Henderson, *et al.* (8), and others obtained results indicating that several factors govern length of fiber.

This study throws additional light on the quantitative nature of this character. The results obtained in the F_2 of this cross, Florida 1377 × D.P.L. 45-867, are typical for the segregation of quantitative characters. It gave a unimodal distribution resembling a normal curve. Continuous variation occurred between the plants, ranging in length of fiber from 0.78 to 1.37 inches. The frequency distribution comprised 19 length classes indicating that a large number of genes involved in the determination of staple length were segregating in the population.

Results obtained by Fletcher (3), Fyson (4), Balls (1), McLendon (14), Kottur (13), Kearney (12), Henderson, *et al.* (8), and others indicate incomplete dominance of long lint over short lint.

According to this study, partial dominance is involved in the determination of this character. The mean of the F_1 was 1.06 inches, significantly higher than that of the parents, which was 0.99 inch. The mean of the F_2 was also 1.06 inches, or approximately 1.74 times that of the short-fiber parent. With absence of dominance, the expected mean of the F_2 should not differ from that of the F_1, or that of the parents.

This is also evident from the frequency distribution of the F_2. This shows that 1,107 F_2 plants, or approximately 80 percent of the total, exceeded the mean length of the parents. On the contrary only 281 F_2 plants, or about 20 percent, were shorter than the parental mean. Moreover 18 F_2 plants had a length within the range of the long-fiber parent, and of these, 2 were as long as its mean length. Also the modal class fell in the 1.12-inch length class, 0.06 inch or two classes above the mean. On the other hand none of the F_2 plants was short enough to reach the range of the short-fiber parent. The shortest F_2 segregate was 1.28 times longer than the mean of the short-fiber parent. In fact there was a gap of three length classes, or 0.09 inch, between the shortest F_2 plants and the longest plants of the short-fiber parent. The difference between the shortest F_2 plants and the mean of the short-fiber parent was 0.17 inch. In other words the shortest F_2 plants were 28 percent longer than the mean of the short parent.

Partial dominance shifted the mean length of the F_1 and F_2 to 1.06 inches as in contrast to the mean length of the parents, 0.99 inch. The

same effect is observable on the modal class, which was shifted to 1.12 inches.

These results point to the occurrence of partial dominance of long fiber over short fiber. With partial dominance involved and the modifications resulting from environmental influences, some difficulties may be encountered in selecting for long fiber.

Plants with increasing doses of length factors over the F_1, will be shifted towards the long-fiber parent by the effect of partial dominance. Selections for long fiber will then be segregating in a wide range of length classes, and may also yield plants not having the desired fiber length.

Plants having fiber lengths below the mean of the F_1, or below its range, will most probably possess less factors for long lint than the F_1. Partial-dominance effects will not be so great in these, and selection will not encounter as many difficulties.

NATURE OF GENE ACTION

Of course this is subject to changes depending on the nature of gene action. It is not known whether gene action is arithmetical or geometrical. Moreover, it also depends on whether the individual effects of genes are the same or different. Furthermore, environment also affects this character, complicating the situation still more.The occurrence of partial dominance would handicap somewhat selection for long fiber in the F_2.

In a cross of Half and Half-2 × Wilds-1, involving a parental difference of 0.29 inch in staple length, Henderson *et al.* (8), estimated a minimum gene difference of four to five pairs of genes. This estimate was based on the recovery of the short-fiber-parent genotype. In the same cross the Castle-Wright formula gave a minimum estimate of two pairs, which undoubtedly is too low as several conditions assumed by the formula were not valid.

In the Wilds-7 × Half and Half-1 cross, with a mean parental difference of 0.45 inch, they estimated a gene difference of 9 pairs of genes and perhaps as many as 18 or 20 pairs.

An estimate of the number of genes affecting fiber length was made by applying the Castle-Wright formula in the present study. As already shown, partial dominance was involved in the determination of fiber length in this cross. Consequently the two F_2 plants reaching the mean length of the long-staple parent could not be used as parental-genotype recoveries to estimate the number of genes involved in the genetic difference between the parents. Partial dominance shifts the length of long-fiber plants towards the long-lint parent.

Among 1,388 F_2 plants, not a single one was recovered as short as the

mean of the short-fiber parent. Theoretically, the frequency of recovery of parental genotypes for segregating F_2 populations would be 1 in 1,024 when five pairs of genes are involved. But among this 1,388 F_2 plants not a single one was recovered as short as the Florida 1377, the short-fiber parent. This evidence suggests that the parents differed by more than five pairs of genes.

With all its limitations the Castle-Wright formula enables us to estimate the minimum number of genes segregating in the F_2 population. The minimum number of genes segregating for fiber length was estimated as 9.38 pairs. Presumably this is the closest estimate that may be obtained of the minimum genetic parental difference as regards this character. But certain assumptions involved in this formula are not consistent with the data. Obviously this is an underestimate of the genetic difference between the parents. With a mean parental difference of 0.45 inch in fiber length, Henderson, *et al.* (8), estimated a minimum of 9 pairs of genes, and probably as many as 18 or 20. The mean parental difference in this cross was 0.76 inch. Therefore the number of genes involved in this case may have been over 20 pairs, and even as many as 30 or more.

Rasmusson (18) stated that the Swedish group of geneticists and plant breeders seem to be unanimous in assuming 100 to 200 genes for most quantitative characters in crosses between types not too closely related.

Attempts made to estimate the number of factors segregating for quantitative characters have largely been unsuccessful. Only in cases involving a small number of segregating genes has it been possible to estimate the number with some certainty. It is very difficult to determine them even with such a small number as five.

Because of the complexity of the problem, the number of genes determining quantitative characters is generally underestimated.

Obviously, with this large number of genes segregating for fiber length, no parental genotypes are expected in the F_2, as the population required would be too large and impracticable to grow.

With such unreliable results as to the estimation of the number of genes, and estimate of the average contribution per pair of genes responsible for fiber length is useless.

The data obtained were not suitable for determining whether the type of gene action involved was arithmetic or geometric in nature.

HERITABILITY OF QUANTITATIVE CHARACTERS

Information on the heritability of quantitative characters may be of value to breeders, since it may indicate to what extent selection can be effective in heterozygous populations. Heritability estimates for fiber length in cotton have been usually high and consistent.

Henderson, *et al.* (8), obtained a heritability value of 67 percent for staple length, using F_2 data from a cross of Half and Half-2 × Wilds-1. In the Wilds-7 × Half and Half-1 cross they obtained a heritability of 73 percent.

In this study heritability of fiber length was high, 85 percent. This is in agreement with previous results. From this it appears that selection for length of fiber would be relatively effective among an F_2 population.

INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FIBER CHARACTERS

Correlation values supply valuable information to cotton breeders on the interrelationships of fiber characters. The simple correlation obtained indicates the existence of a significant correlation between length and perimeter of fiber. This is in agreement with the general belief that length and perimeter of fiber are negatively correlated, as long Upland cottons are usually fine while the shorter ones are coarse. Very little information is available on correlation studies between these characters. Henderson, *et al.* (8), found no correlation between these characters. But in their cross, the difference for this character was not as great as in this cross. Consequently their data may not be suitable for showing any association between these characters.

Before the Arealometer was made available, diameter of the fiber was usually measured instead of perimeter. The results on correlation studies between length and diameter are very inconsistent. Stroman (20) obtained a significant, but low value in 1944, and in 1945 and 1946, the values were negative but not significant. Moore (16) conducted extensive studies on the association between these characters. The simple correlation for the association by regions on the seed was not significant, but the partial correlation was positive and highly significant. Neither the simple nor partial values by plants or seeds indicated a real association for fiber length and fiber diameter. He stated, however, that independently of all other fiber characters, there is probably a positive association of fiber length with average fiber diameter. Raising the fiber length should theoretically increase fiber diameter, and lower fiber weight.

The association between length and perimeter, as indicated by these results, is not strong enough to cause any difficulties in a breeding program. It should be possible to develop any combinations of levels of expression of these two characters.

The partial value for the association between these characters when the influence of wall thickness was removed, was a highly significant, negative one. However, when the influence of weight fineness was removed, the partial value showed no correlation at all.

Henderson, *et al.* (8), obtained no indication as to the existence of an

association between perimeter and wall thickness. These two latter characters being independent from each other should then have not much influence on the association of each other with length.

But both of them, and wall thickness to a greater extent, as indicated by the evidence available, are closely associated with weight fineness. They are the components of weight fineness.

This explains why the partial correlation for the association between length and perimeter is so high when the influence of wall thickness is removed. However, when the influence of weight fineness is removed no association appears to exist.

The majority of Upland varieties, no matter how long a fiber they possess, appear to differ very little in regard to perimeter, although there are exceptions.

Wall thickness of the fiber is the other component of its weight fineness. According to this study, there is an appreciable association between length and wall thickness of the fiber. This association is analogous to the relationship between length and perimeter already discussed.

Henderson, *et al.* (8), reported a nonsignificant association between these characters. However, in this cross, there was very little genetic difference between the parents as regards wall thickness of the fiber, and no conclusions could be drawn.

Moore (16) studied the association between length and percentage of thin-walled fibers, by regions on the seed, and by plants or seeds. In all cases, the simple and partial values indicated no significant association between these characters. Wall thickness and percentage of thin-walled fibers are negatively associated.

Barker and Pope (2), obtained correlations of -0.23, a significant value, and 0.10 for length and percentage of thick-walled fibers. Though the significant value was very low, it indicated a tendency towards a decrease in the percentage of thick-walled fibers as length of fiber increased. In other words, it suggested a negative association between length of fiber and wall thickness.

Although the thickness of the fiber wall is determined by genetic factors, to a certain extent, much of the variation occurring in this character is the result of the influence of environment. To a certain extent, the duration of the period of deposition of the secondary wall of the fiber affects wall thickness. In addition, environmental fluctuations during this period exert a great influence on this character.

The partial correlations obtained for the association of length and wall thickness were significant when the influence of perimeter was removed, but nonsignificant when the influence of weight fineness was removed.

As already discussed, wall thickness and perimeter may be independent of each other. However, being components of weight fineness, both of them appear to be associated with length because of the association of the latter with fineness. The apparently higher association of length with wall thickness than with perimeter seems to be due to the fact that the wall thickness-weight fineness relationship is also greater than that with perimeter.

Most published studies are in agreement with the accepted belief that length and weight fineness are negatively associated. Highly significant, negative simple and partial values were obtained for length and weight fineness, indicating that a real association exists between these characters. These results are in agreement with the evidence already available from various sources.

Moore (16) obtained similar results indicating a real association between these characters. There was a real negative association of average fiber length with average fiber weight per inch by regions of the seed, as indicated by both simple and partial values. By plants or seeds the simple correlation between these characters was not significant, but the partial value was negative and highly significant.

Green's (5) results also indicate that a real association exists between these characters. He obtained a highly significant correlation of -0.711 in 285 different strains of cotton.

Hancock (6) and Barker and Pope (2) obtained similar results as to the association between these characters.

Evidence indicates that this relationship is influenced to a greater extent by wall thickness than by perimeter of the fiber. In general, the results obtained indicate a closer association for weight fineness with wall thickness than with perimeter of the fiber.

Most studies have shown that a real association exists between these characters. It is true that the high association reported by Green (5) might be explained as due to the fact that extralong Upland varieties have been developed from strains which also were fine, and similarly shorter than average varieties from strains with coarse fiber.

These results indicate that selection for long cottons tends to reduce weight fineness, and similarly short cottons will tend to be higher in weight fineness. Because of this association it may be difficult to obtain combinations of either high or low levels of expression of both characters.

Regression values of perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness on fiber length are all highly significant. These values also suggest the existence of an association between length and each of the other fiber characters mentioned. Values for each of these characters at different levels of fiber length may be predicted with relative accuracy.

CONCLUSIONS

The information obtained from genetic analysis of quantitative characters, such as fiber length, is of great value as regards breeding for the improvement of such characters. A knowledge of their dominance relationships, number of genes constituting the genetic parental difference, type of gene action involved, heritability, and other genetic characteristics, is essential to the success of the breeding program. A consideration of these different aspects is fundamental for the effectiveness of selection for these characters.

As the present situation demands types of cotton fiber combining certain levels of the various important fiber characters, the inheritance of these various characters should be better known. A determination of the interrelationships among them is also essential in the breeding of better cottons combining the desired fiber characters.

SUMMARY

1. An attempt was made to investigate the inheritance of degree of dominance, number of genes involved, estimated contribution per pair of genes, nature of gene action, and heritability of staple length in Upland cotton, and its interrelationships with several important fiber characters, namely perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness.

2. Varieties Florida 1377 and D.P.L. 45-867, which represent the extremes in the length range in Upland cotton, were selected for this study. These noncommercial varieties also differ widely with regard to perimeter and wall thickness. Crosses were made and F_1 and F_2 populations were grown in the same year with the parents.

3. Staple length was determined by hand for each of the 1,388 F_2, 24 F_1, 26 Florida 1377, and 41 D.P.L. 45-867 plants.

4. Florida 1377 had a mean fiber length of 0.61 inch as compared with 1.37 inches for the D.P.L. 45-867. The mean parental difference was 0.76 inch. The F_1 and F_2 populations had a mean fiber length of 1.06 inches.

The F_2 segregated as a typical quantitative character. Its frequency distribution comprised a large number of classes (19), indicating that a large number of genes were segregating for this character.

There was a significant difference between the mean of the parents and those of the F_1 and F_2 populations, indicating partial dominance of long staple over short. This was also apparent from the F_2 distribution. This condition may handicap selection of long fiber in the F_2.

The minimum number of genes, as estimated by the Castle-Wright formula, was 9.38. Based on this estimate, the average contribution per pair of genes was estimated as 0.08 inch.

The data were not adequate to determine whether arithmetic or geometric gene action was involved.

Staple length gave a high heritability, 85 percent in F_2.

5. The relationships of perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness with fiber length were studied. A significant negative correlation of -0.319 was found between length and perimeter of fiber. It is evident that some difficulty could be encountered in attempting to combine long fiber with large perimeter.

There was a closer negative association between length and wall thickness ($r = -0.434$). It appears very difficult to combine the very long staple of the D.P.L. 45-867 parent with the thick fiber wall of the Florida 1377 parent. However, it should be easy to maintain the parent combinations of long fiber, small perimeter and thin walls, or short fiber, large perimeter and thick walls.

A very close association was found to exist between length and weight fineness. This association was still close when either one of the other characters, i.e., perimeter and wall thickness, was held constant. This relationship might result in difficulties in obtaining combinations of long staple with coarse fiber, or short with fine. Selection for long fiber should reduce fiber weight, while selection for short fiber should increase it.

A highly significant multiple correlation of length with perimeter and wall thickness was obtained, indicating a close association among these characters.

Highly significant regression coefficients of perimeter, wall thickness, and weight fineness on length of fiber were also obtained.

6. A broader knowledge of the inheritance of the important characters of the cotton fiber and their interrelationships will be very useful to the cotton breeder.

RESUMEN

1. Se realizó un estudio en el algodón "Upland" con el propositó de investigar el grado de dominancia, el número de genes envueltos, la contribución estimada por cada par de genes, la naturaleza de la acción génica y la heritabilidad del largo de fibra. Fueron también objeto de estudio las relaciones entre el largo de fibra y varios caracteres de la fibra, especialmente perímetro, espesor de la pared y fineza, todos los cuales son de importancia comercial.

2. Para este estudio se seleccionaron las variedades Florida 1377 y D.P.L. 45-867, las cuales representan los extremos en la variación del largo de fibra en el algodón "Upland". Estas variedades difieren ampliamente la

una de la otra con respecto al perímetro y al espesor de la pared de la fibra. Después de efectuados los cruces entre estas variedades, las generaciones F_1 y F_2 fueron sembradas simultáneamente con las generaciones progenitoras.

3. Se midió a mano el largo de fibra del algodón de cada una de las 1388 plantas de la F_2, de las 24 plantas de la F_1, de las 26 plantas de la variedad Florida 1377 y de las 41 plantas de la variedad D.P.L. 45-867

4. El largo de fibra medio en la Florida 1377 fué de 0.61 pulgada y el de la D.P.L. 45-867 fué de 1.37 pulgadas. La diferencia media fué, por tanto, de 0.76 pulgadas. El largo de fibra medio en las generaciones F_1 y F_2 fué de 1.06 pulgadas.

La segregación en la F_2 fué típica de un carácter cuantitativo. La distribución de frecuencia comprendió un gran número de clases (19), señal de que había un gran número de genes segregando para esta característica.

Se encontró una diferencia significativa entre el promedio de los progenitores y los de las generaciones F_1 y F_2, lo cual indica dominancia parcial de fibra larga sobre corta. Esta misma indicación se obtiene al examinar la distribución de la F_2. Esta condición puede entorpecer la selección para fibra larga en la F_2.

El número mínimo de genes envueltos, estimado por la fórmula de Castle-Right, fué 9.38. A base de este estimado, se calculó que la contribución promedio por cada par de genes en la determinación del largo de fibra fué de 0.08 pulgadas.

Los datos obtenidos no permitieron determinar si la acción génica envuelta era aritmética o geométrica.

El largo de fibra tuvo un alto grado de heritabilidad, que alcanzó 85 por ciento en la F_2.

5. Se estudiaron las relaciones que hay entre el largo de fibra y el perímetro, espesor de la pared y la fineza. Entre el largo y el perímetro de la fibra se obtuvo una correlación de -0.319, la cual resultó ser significativa. Aparentemente, el combinar fibra larga y perímetro grande en una misma variedad resultará algo difícil.

Hubo una asociación negativa mayor entre el largo y el espesor de la pared de la fibra ($r = -0.434$). Tal parece que es muy difícil combinar el largo de fibra del D.P.L. 45-867 con el espesor de la pared de la fibra del Florida 1377.

Sin embargo, deberá ser fácil el conservar las combinaciones de estos caracteres tal como los mismos aparecen en los progenitores, es decir, fibra larga, perímetro pequeño y pared de la fibra delgada en el uno, y fibra corta, perímetro grande y pared de la fibra gruesa en el otro.

Hay una asociación muy estrecha entre el largo de la fibra y la fineza. Esta asociación es muy estrecha y se mantiene así hasta cuando uno de los

caracteres componentes varía y el otro permanece constante. Esta relación puede crear dificultades al tratar de combinar estos caracteres con el fin de obtener una fibra larga y gruesa, o fibra corta y fina. El seleccionar para fibra larga reducirá el peso por unidad del largo de fibra, esto es, la fibra será más fina. Lo contrario ocurrirá cuando se seleccione para fibra corta.

Entre el largo de fibra y el perímetro y el grueso de la pared hay una correlación múltiple altamente significativa, lo cual prueba que entre estos caracteres la asociación es muy estrecha.

También se obtuvieron coeficientes de regresión altamente significativos de perímetro, grueso de la pared y fineza de la fibra en el largo de la fibra.

6. Un conocimiento más amplio de la herencia de los caracteres importantes de la fibra del algodón, así como de sus interrelaciones, será de gran ayuda al geneticista empeñado en mejorar la calidad del algodón.

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Cotton Variety Trials in Puerto Rico

Juan Pastor Rodríguez, R. Gandía Caro, and Roberto Vázquez Romero[1, 2]

INTRODUCTION

The genus gossypium has been very well represented in Puerto Rico and other islands of the West Indies since their early history. When the great navigator, Cristopher Columbus, landed in the West Indies, the natives brought skeins (1)[3] of cotton threads to his ships to be used in barter. Cotton was at that time extensively cultivated and the art of weaving was developed sufficiently to produce certain cotton goods. At the time of the colonization the Spaniards (2)[3] found that the Indians were using it to make hammocks and cloth. But it was not until 1776 that the growers showed some interest in large-scale production of this famous textile. Following this, cotton took an important place among the crops of economic value then under cultivation in the Island. Interest in this commodity grew to such an extent that, in 1837, the production of lint cotton was 10,000 bales.

The Barbadense species of cotton has been cultivated commercially here since 1904. Of this species Montserrat Sea Island has been a most outstanding variety in Puerto Rico. Its fiber is superior in quality to that of any other cotton produced and has been used by mills both in England and in the United States in the manufacture of sewing threads, lace yarns, typewriter-ribbon cloth, fine fabrics for broadcloth, and special fabrics to support heavy pressures at high altitudes, such as those used for airplane-wing coverings, parachute cloths, dirigible outside coverings, and gas-cell fabrics.

The cotton grown (3) in Puerto Rico in the period immediately prior to 1920 was ginned in a mill which was managed by Gandía and Stubbe of San Juan, P.R. The San Juan Ginnery Co., a subsidiary of the Spool Cotton Co., started business in this Island in the year 1920. For about 10 years before 1920, the San Juan Ginnery Co. had sponsored the growing of cotton in Puerto Rico, being encouraged to do so by J. and P. Coats, Ltd., of Glasgow, Scotland, and the Clark Thread Co., of Newark, N. J., for both of which concerns they served as agents for the sale of sewing threads and related products.

[1] Juan Pastor Rodríguez, Associate Agronomist, R. Gandía Caro, Assistant in Agronomy, and Roberto Vázquez Romero, Assistant in Agronomy, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras, P.R.

[2] The writers express their indebtedness to B. G. Capó, Associate Director for Research, Ishverl S. Bangdiwala, Statistician in Charge of the Department of Statistics, and Maybin S. Baker, of Luce & Co., for their criticism, advice, and assistance on this work.

[3] Numbers in parentheses refer to Literature Cited p. 61.

In the year 1930 the San Juan Ginnery Co. suspended operations in Puerto Rico and ever since the cotton grown and the acreage devoted to this crop have fluctuated considerably. These fluctuations have been largely due to a lack of demand market since the San Juan Ginnery Co. suspended operations in Puerto Rico. Our cotton growers have depended on deals with buyers or brokers who buy the cotton for certain mills where it is blended with other cottons of inferior quality in order to improve the length and luster of the inferior cotton fibers in the mixture. When this is done, our cotton loses its name and never again is known or mentioned as Sea Island cotton from Puerto Rico.

Table 1 presents the fluctuations in size and value of the crop from 1935 to 1950.

Cotton is a rather important cash crop for a large number of small farmers in both the northern and southwestern parts of the Island. The following exposition will give an idea of its general distribution among the principal producing areas.

In 1941, for example, the total acreage (4) planted to cotton amounted to 7,700 *cuerdas*, of which 6,000 were in the northwestern and 1,700 in the southwestern part of Puerto Rico. Isabela, with a total production of 10,836 hundredweights, was the leading producing center among the areas with a production of over 1,000 hundredweights. Camuy, with 8,402, and Hatillo,

TABLE 1.—*Acreage, production, and value of Sea-Island Cotton in Puerto Rico*, 1935-50[1]

Year	Area	Production of seed cotton	Exportation	
			Bales	Value
	Acres	*Cwt.*	*Number*	*Dollars*
1935	1,148	3,712	211	31,617
1936	2,208	9,856	544	89,218
1937	2,016	8,489	474	59,002
1938	2,072	8,608	513	64,587
1939	3,344	12,898	730	128,367
1940	3,884	24,690	1,376	263,261
1941	9,293	39,794	2,139	473,209
1942	10,367	42,044	2,226	589,370
1943	8,362	32,504	1,662	475,330
1944	5,684	19,159	997	295,260
1945	2,257	9,915	590	142,396
1946	486	1,424	97	20,497
1947	1,957	3,930	262	60,587
1948	3,779	8,543	565	191,382
1949	5,034	16,036	866	290,242
1950	3,960	11,405	604	209,380

[1] The above figures were obtained from the Cotton Grower's Cooperative Association, Arecibo, P. R., and the Sea-Island Cotton Co., Ponce, P. R.

with 6,164 hundredweights, ranked second and third in importance from the standpoint of total production. Other important producing municipalities were Quebradillas with 2,545, Cabo Rojo with 2,048, Sabana Grande with 1,457, Guayanilla with 1,337, and Yauco with 1,140 hundredweights.

In 1935, the Puerto Rico Marketing Association was organized to give new impulse to the growing of cotton, which had been practically abandoned because of the low price and lack of a dependable market to absorb the total production of the Sea Island Cotton in the Island. But in 1940, according to a resolution approved at a general meeting of stockholders, the name of the Cooperative was changed, and since then it has been known as the "Puerto Rico Cotton Growers Marketing Cooperative".

Large acreage was planted to cotton in response to unusual needs experienced during World Wars I and II; but since the end of World War II, the acreage has continued to decline. It is generally agreed that weighty decisions need be taken if the production and marketing of Sea Island Cotton are to be set on a sound basis.

Increased industrialization has been suggested as a means of permanently improving the cotton situation, but it has encountered many objections. Some believe that commercial growing of Sea Island Cotton in Puerto Rico is economically impractical from the point of view of the dollar yield per acre. Others feel that it is not a practical cotton to process as compared to such Egyptian or American cottons as Karnak, Sudan, Pima 32, or Amsak, and that the number of spinners interested in its use is most limited.

OBJECTIVE

Variety trials have been conducted in Puerto Rico by the Agricultural Experiment Station of the University of Puerto Rico, to determine whether it would benefit our cotton growers to replace the Montserrat Sea-Island variety of cotton currently planted in the Island with one of the Egyptian or American-Egyptian types. This paper reports the results of these variety tests.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

TRIAL LOCATIONS AND SOILS

The cotton-variety trials were conducted at the Isabela Substation; at Colonias Florida, Fortuna of Luce & Co., in Santa Isabel and Salinas, respectively; and at the Lajas, Corozal, and Aibonito farms of this Station. The cotton varieties used were Montserrat Sea Island, Coastland Sea Island, Sealand, Pima 32, and Amsak.

At Isabela the soil used was a Coto clay of medium fertility which had been planted to sugarcane, and to root and grain crops for several years. Roberts described (5) this type of soil as Coto clay, which occurs in nearly

level areas, the largest of which are southwest of Isabela, and south of Quebradillas. This soil is very similar to Coto clay, heavy phase, but the surface soil is slightly more friable, looser, and has a higher sand content. Yields are slightly less than on Coto clay, heavy phase. Some fields, however, have produced 50 tons of gran cultura sugarcane to the acre under irrigation. Other crops returning a good profit when the land was irrigated were Red Spanish peppers, which yield about 150 crates to the acre; tomatoes, about 200 crates; tobacco, from 600 to 800 pounds; and corn, from 1,000 to 1,500 pounds. Under good management corn has produced as much as 38 hundredweights per acre. Some farmers have more than one crop on their land at the same time; for instance, young cotton, beans, and 18-inch to 2-foot banana plants. In nonirrigated areas, tobacco, cotton, and other minor crops are the principal ones grown.

At Santa Isabel, the soil used was a Santa Isabel silty clay loam. In Roberts' Soil Survey of Puerto Rico this soil is described as one similar to Santa Clara clay, but it differs from that soil in that it contains a larger proportion of silt and less clay. It is slightly easier to plow and cultivate than the clay soil and for this reason is more desirable. The agricultural use of this soil is nearly the same as for Santa Isabel clay, and nearly all of the land is used for the production of sugarcane, except in places where the content of salt in the surface soil is greater than 0.2 percent.

At Colonia Fortuna, in Salinas, the soil used was *Altura* loam, which is a soil developed from alluvial material that has been washed from the steep hills of the southern side of the Cordillera Central. It occurs in several areas near the foothills between Guayama and Juana Díaz. With the exception of the texture of the surface soil, this soil corresponds with *Altura* silt loam, but nevertheless it is one of the most productive soils, and nearly the entire area is used for the production of sugarcane—that is all areas that can be irrigated.

At the Corozal Substation the soil used was a Lares clay. This soil occupies very old well-drained terraces that have been derived from the wash from the *Catalina* and associated red acid soils and, to less extent, from the *Múcara* and associated brown soils. This soil is desirable for the production of coffee, sugarcane, pineapples, citrus, and minor crops, and the cultivated acreage is about equally divided among these crops. It has never been cropped to commercial cotton.

At the Aibonito Substation, around 2,000 feet in elevation, the soil used was a Juncos clay. This soil is similar to *Múcara* silty clay loam in color, origin, and consistence, but owing to its smoother relief it has a thicker surface soil and more plastic subsoil, greater depth to parent rock, and is much more productive, especially for sugarcane. Nearly 90 percent of the land is cultivated to sugarcane. This soil occupies the lower slopes and low

rounded hills throughout the Island, in association with the *Múcara* soils. Subsistence crops and tobacco yield better on this soil than on Múcara silty clay loam.

PLOTS AND PLANT TREATMENTS

The layout of the fields was a Latin-square design for all the trials except for the variety trial at Lajas where a split-plot design was used, variety being the main effect and fertilizer the subplot effect.

The size of the plots differed somewhat for the different experiments From the data shown in table 2, it appears that the rainfall was sufficient for the successful production of a cotton crop in most cases, but this was not so in these variety trials, as the rain was very irregularly distributed in many instances, and thus the crops did not receive the necessary amount of moisture during their growing periods. As a matter of fact, there are no sharply defined weather seasons in Puerto Rico (5), though we do have a rather rainy period comprising the months from May to November. Frequent showers may occur during the winter months, but the heavy rainfall usually takes place during the spring and summer months. Evaporation is much higher in comparison to the rainfall during the winter months and irrigation is necessary for maximum crop production even in regions with an annual average rainfall of 65 inches.

During our variety trials at Isabela, as well as in Lajas, Salinas, and Santa Isabel, the cotton plants were supplied with the necessary amount of soil moisture by mean of irrigation water when rain was sparse. So, notwithstanding the light rainfall in some locations during the growing period of the cotton plants, we obtained high yields of seed cotton at these places.

At the Isabela and Aibonito Substations we used plots one one-hundredth of an acre in area; at the Corozal Substation, one fifty-fifth of an acre; at Colonia Florida in Santa Isabel one-eighteenth of an acre, at Colonia Fortuna of Salinas, one-twentieth of an acre; and at the Lajas Substation the main plots were one-eighteenth acre in area and the subplot size was one ninety-fourth of an acre. At Isabela, Lajas, Santa Isabel, and Salinas where the cotton was artificially irrigated, the rows were spaced 42 inches apart. At Corozal and Aibonito (uplands) where we had to depend on the rainfall the rows were spaced 36 inches apart. The treatments were replicated five times.

To ensure a good stand on each plot, germination tests were made and Aldrin (25 percent) was applied to the soil at the rate of 1 gallon per acre before planting. The germination tests showed good viability of the seed—over 90-percent germination in all tests. Aldrin was used for the control of soil insects such as mole crickets (*Scapteriscus vicinus* Scudler), white grubs, Phyllophaga spp., and cutworms.

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TABLE 2.—*Regions, soil types, elevations, and rainfall data at the different locations where the cotton trials were established, 1952–54*

Region	Soil Type	Elevation	Months	Rainfall data[1]			Average for the month
				1952	1953	1954	
		Feet		*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*
Isabela	Coto clay	275	Jan.	5.14	2.23	2.77	3.38
			Feb.	1.39	.65	6.54	2.86
			Mar.	6.11	.68	3.46	3.42
			Apr.	11.65	5.20	4.35	7.07
			May	6.05	6.05	13.42	8.51
			June	6.35	6.20	9.51	7.35
			July	4.53	5.30	4.55	4.79
			Aug.	6.29	4.22	6.06	5.52
			Sept.	9.52	6.78	7.39	7.90
			Oct.	4.44	5.84	8.95	6.41
			Nov.	3.36	5.12	1.89	3.46
			Dec.	3.07	9.98	1.80	4.95
			Annual	67.90	58.25	70.69	—
Lajas	Santa Isabel clay	50	Jan.	1.10	1.46	3.44	2.00
			Feb.	2.06	.95	4.84	2.62
			Mar.	1.96	4.28	1.53	2.59
			Apr.	4.47	2.14	9.19	5.27
			May	2.45	2.71	2.81	2.66
			June	1.19	5.44	3.54	3.39
			July	2.68	4.79	3.51	3.66
			Aug.	5.39	8.58	7.16	7.04
			Sept.	14.90	2.81	10.22	9.31
			Oct.	5.99	6.10	6.60	6.23
			Nov.	3.40	5.56	3.97	4.31
			Dec.	1.03	2.39	.84	1.45
			Annual	46.62	47.21	57.75	—
Aibonito	Juncos clay	2,000	Jan.	4.16	1.40	1.98	2.51
			Feb.	3.63	1.23	4.04	2.97
			Mar.	2.36	1.38	1.06	1.60
			Apr.	4.59	2.93	4.99	4.17
			May	6.03	1.90	4.07	4.00
			June	2.73	3.80	5.56	4.03
			July	4.00	4.04	4.92	4.32
			Aug.	6.00	7.45	3.77	5.74
			Sept.	12.12	[2]	8.75	—
			Oct.	5.69	[2]	10.62	—
			Nov.	2.47	4.46	7.66	4.86
			Dec.	1.91	[2]	1.69	—
			Annual	55.69	—	59.11	—

TABLE 2.—*Continued*

Region	Soil Type	Elevation	Months	Rainfall data[1]			Average for the month
				1952	1953	1954	
		Feet		*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*
Corozal	Lares clay	400	Jan.	11.03	3.28	5.48	6.63
			Feb.	5.73	2.37	3.11	3.74
			Mar.	3.36	3.80	1.50	2.89
			Apr.	11.93	6.45	6.52	8.30
			May	10.06	10.49	5.70	8.75
			June	2.64	7.21	2.54	4.13
			July	7.60	9.72	5.20	7.51
			Aug.	6.62	4.38	7.41	6.14
			Sept.	6.05	5.87	7.36	6.43
			Oct.	7.00	6.57	6.86	6.81
			Nov.	5.14	5.36	6.62	5.71
			Dec.	6.07	8.03	3.75	5.95
			Annual	83.23	73.63	—	—
Santa Isabel	Santa Isabel silty clay loam	25	Jan.	0.95	0.62	0.18	0.58
			Feb.	.35	.35	1.40	.70
			Mar.	.00	.10	.58	.23
			Apr.	4.19	.60	.75	1.85
			May	3.56	.56	.60	1.55
			June	7.07	2.07	3.72	4.29
			July	5.55	2.65	2.40	3.53
			Aug.	7.00	3.75	2.60	4.45
			Sept.	12.30	8.11	5.45	8.62
			Oct.	2.22	5.17	9.49	5.63
			Nov.	.28	.75	1.18	.74
			Dec.	—	1.17	—	—
			Annual	39.20	25.90	28.35	—
Salinas	Altura	50	Jan.	1.66	0.92	0.40	0.79
			Feb.	1.59	.32	1.78	1.23
			Mar.	.90	.23	.20	.44
			Apr.	2.04	1.40	.40	1.28
			May	4.97	.49	.80	2.09
			June	5.49	4.06	3.45	4.33
			July	8.87	2.82	1.85	4.51
			Aug.	4.68	6.74	4.45	5.29
			Sept.	10.62	8.52	9.00	9.38
			Oct.	4.34	8.93	14.03	9.10
			Nov.	.44	1.11	1.20	.92
			Dec.	.10	.68	.27	.35
			Annual	45.62	35.62	37.83	—

[1] Data obtained from U. S. Weather Bureau Office; San Juan, P.R.
[2] Missing.

The cotton plants in the experiments were sprayed every 15 days with DDT at the rate of 4 pounds per 100 gallons of water in order to check the development of pink bollworms (*Pectinophora gossypiella* Saunders). At Colonia Fortuna, BHC was added to the DDT spray in order to check the cotton aphids, and at the Lajas Substation two sprays with Clordane, at the rate of 1 quart per acre were made to check the leaf worms, (*Alabama argillacea* Hübner). During the pickings, samples were prepared for the laboratory for fiber spinning tests.

EXPERIMENTAL DATA

YIELDS OF SEED AND LINT COTTON

In the first trial at Isabela, there was a heavy pink bollworm infestation and abnormally heavy rains which affected all the varieties under trial with the exception of Sealand, which is an early variety. All of the Sealand crop had been picked when this trial was discontinued, whereas only about one-fourth of the crop of the Montserrat Sea Island had been picked. Although these results were attributable to factors extraneous to the yielding capacity of these varieties, yet the earlier yielding ability of the Sealand, enabling it to produce its crop early and thus avoid the possibility of damages of these sorts, indicates that it may in the long run outyield the other varieties in the Isabela region.

In fact, this has been the case with the Sealand variety which has outyielded the others in all trials in a highly significant way, with the exception of Montserrat Sea Island in trials No. 5 (table 3), at Salinas, and No. 2 (table 3), at Santa Isabel, where the Sealand and Montserrat Sea Island outyielded the other three varieties in a highly significant way, there being no significant difference between these two varieties.

The Coastland variety outyielded Pima 32 and Amsak at the 5-percent point in trial No. 2, at Santa Isabel, and in a highly significant way in trial No. 8, at Lajas.

When trial No. 3, at Isabela, was harvested, the plants were green and the climate and soil-moisture conditions were ideal for them to develop new shoots and leaves. Having had no experience before with ratoon cotton, we decided to take advantage of this situation to gain some experience in the cultivation of cotton-ratoon crops, and pruned all the plants in the trials by cutting them about 6 inches above the soil. Two or three main limbs or vegetative branches were left on each plant from the large number of new shoots and branches developed. The field was fertilized with a 12-8-6 fertilizer at the rate of 600 pounds per acre.

Montserrat Sea Island and Sealand recovered very well from the pruning and developed a good number of fruiting branches. The other three varieties Pima 32, Amsak, and Coastland, did not respond well to the pruning.

Sealand and Montserrat flowered abundantly and nearly all the flowers

TABLE 3.—*Mean yields of seed cotton for 5 varieties, in hundredweights per acre, at the different locations used for the cotton-variety trials*

Variety	Yield at locations indicated							
	Santa Isabel No. 2	Isabela No. 3	Isabela No. 4	Salinas No. 5	Isabela No. 6	Corozal No. 7	Lajas No. 8	Aibonito No. 9
Montserrat Sea Island	20.18	10.92	11.540	16.57	9.99	9.25	17.46	6.59
Pima 32	10.66	10.53	2.704	14.06	7.22	10.78	8.86	7.15
Coastland	11.80	12.60	3.954	13.29	9.14	12.90	13.22	10.80
Sealand	19.06	20.53	7.942	17.28	22.86	19.59	23.71	22.40
Amsak	8.52	12.21	.694	13.90	7.73	9.39	10.51	7.59
L.S.D. for comparison between 2 variety means:								
At the 5-percent point	3.19	1.36	1.55	1.28	2.54	2.71	2.07	3.63
At the 1-percent point	4.55	1.91	2.17	1.73	3.56	3.81	2.85	5.08

produced bolls which ripened normally, producing a good cotton crop. The other three varieties in the trial did not recover well from the pruning and developed only a small number of fruiting branches, the yield of seed cotton per acre being very low.

The picking of the cotton started 3 months after the plants were pruned. Harvesting of the cotton from the variety Sealand was finished in 30 days, and the picking of cotton from the variety Montserrat Sea Island took 54 days. This variety (M.S.I.) outyielded the others in a highly significant way. If we compare the results in table 3, which shows per acre yields of seed cotton, with those in table 4, which shows yield of lint cotton per acre,

TABLE 4.—*Mean yields of lint cotton for 5 varieties, in hundredweights per acre, at the different locations used for the cotton-variety trials*

Variety	Yield at locations indicated							
	Santa Isabel No. 2	Isabela No. 3	Isabela No. 4	Salinas No. 5	Isabela No. 6	Corozal No. 7	Lajas No. 8	Aibonito No. 9
Montserrat Sea Island	6.36	3.35	3.52	5.18	3.16	2.94	5.50	2.07
Pima 32	3.48	3.97	.85	4.56	2.37	3.49	2.90	2.33
Coastland	4.16	4.31	1.35	3.65	3.23	4.55	4.66	3.80
Sealand	5.93	6.20	2.40	5.34	7.13	6.09	7.38	6.95
Amsak	2.75	3.87	.23	4.39	2.50	3.04	3.40	2.44
L.S.D. for comparison between 2 variety means:								
At the 5-percent point	1.06	0.98	0.47	0.41	0.83	0.89	0.71	1.15
At the 1-percent point	1.49	1.38	.66	.57	1.16	1.24	.98	1.61

TABLE 5.—*Results of classification, fiber tests, carded and combed yarn for varieties of cotton of the Barbadense species grown at 5 locations in the Island, processed at a card-production rate of 3½ pounds per hour*[1]

Test item	Results on variety indicated				
	M.S.L.	Pima	Coastland	Sealand	Amsak
Classification (Official Standard)					
Grade[2]	1	1	1	1	1
Staple (inches)	1½	1½	1⅝	1½	1½
Fiber length (fibrograph):					
Upper half mean (inches)	1.49	1.45	1.48	1.40	1.37
Mean	1.32	1.17	1.18	1.18	1.17
Uniformity ratio	89	81	80	84	85
Manufacturing:					
Carding rate (lbs./hr.)	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
Comber setting (inches)	.54	0.54	0.54	0.54	0.54
Wt. Fed. 1st. picker (lbs.)	9.00	9.00	8.83	8.73	9.00
Waste:					
Picker and card (percent)	10.24	10.91	10.26	10.34	11.82
Neps in card web (per 100 sq. in.)	12.53	14.71	11.85	13.86	12.05
Spinning-end breakage	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Twist multiplier (all yarn Nos.)	3.50	3.55	3.50	3.60	3.60
Yarn strength and appearance:					
Carded 22s (pounds and grade)	184.4 B+	183.6 B	172.4 B	164.2 B	180.6 B
Carded 60s (pounds and grade)	54.3 B	54.8 B	51.6 C+	49.5 B	55.8 C+
Long draft processed:					
Average yarn strength index	102.2	102.5	87.4	91.1	102.4
Average yarn appearance index	115.0	115.0	105.0	110.0	115.0
Combed—60s (pounds and grade)	58.0 B+	58.2 B+	54.7 B	52.8 B	58.0 B
100s (pounds and grade)	29.4 B	29.8 B	28.1 C+	26.6 C+	30.0 B
Average yarn strength index	102.7	103.6	86.2	93.2	103.8
Average yarn appearance index	115.0	115.0	105.0	105.0	110.0

[1] Tests performed at the USDA Cotton Testing Laboratory, Clemson, S. C.

[2] Grade based on Sea Island Standards.

[3] Low.

we find that there is little difference in the yields of lint cotton from the variety Coastland, which outyielded Montserrat Sea Island, Pima 32, and Amsak in the seventh trial performed at Corozal and in the ninth trial at Aibonito, at the 5-percent point.

Montserrat Sea Island outyielded Pima 32, Coastland, and Amsak at the 5-percent point in the eighth trial at Lajas.

After the first trial, satisfactory results were obtained, pink bollworm and cotton aphis having been effectively controlled by fortnightly sprays with DDT and Aldrin.

COTTON TESTING LABORATORY REPORT

The main results obtained in the test carried out at the U. S. Cotton Testing Laboratory and reported in table 5 were summarized as follows:[4]

I. The total picker and card waste for the Sea Island, Pima 32, Coastland, and Sealand cottons are considered to be at about the same level, since the difference between the extremes of those 4, namely 10.24 percent for Sea Island and 10.91 for Pima 32 was less than 0.75 percent. The picker and card waste for Amsak was higher at 11.82 percent, indicating greater waste content than for any of the other four varieties in the test. These manufacturing waste levels are lower than average for the grade of these samples of cotton.

II. The total manufacturing waste, including that extracted at the picking, card and comber was higher for Pima 32. Sealand and Amsak were at approximately the same level, and were second. Sea Island was third from highest and Coastland was lowest with 20.89 percent.

III. In considering both carded and combed yarn strengths, Sea Island and Pima 32 which show no significant difference are best of the test. Samples from Amsak, are on the average second, followed by those from Coastland, with those from Sealand falling weakest of the test.

IV. Yarn appearance grades were best for Sea Island and Pima 32. The average yarn appearance indexes for the carded and combed of these were 115, which is significantly higher than that expected from average cotton. The combed yarns of Amsak, averaged next highest for the combed, but the carded yarns of Sealand were second. Coastland produced the lowest yarn grades of the test.

V. Sea Island strain is considered the best of the test. The total manufacturing waste from this sample was lower than the average expected from this grade, the strengths for both carded and combed yarns were above those for average cotton of this length, and the appearance grades for all yarns were above the level expected when manufactured under those conditions.

Pima 32 is considered second best. It is at the same level as Sea Island except for the waste content. The waste for this cotton was higher than for Sea Island. Amsak is the choice for third from an over-all spinning standpoint. This is followed by Coastland, with Sealand falling lowest in quality for the test.

[4] The Laboratory report refers to the varieties by code, since the identification of the samples sent to the Laboratory was in code. For this report we have substituted the names of the varieties in quoting.

It is believed that cottons represented in the samples of Sea Island and Pima 32 could be carded and combed at a considerably higher rate of production than the 3½ pounds per hour used for these samples and still make yarns of acceptable grade by the best fine yarn mills.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

From the standpoint of yields, Sealand seems to be the best cotton variety to cultivate in Puerto Rico, but Montserrat Sea Island seems to be just as good for planting in the southern part of the Island. However, from the standpoint of the fiber quality, Montserrat Sea Island seems to be the cotton for Puerto Rico.

The statement that growing Sea Island cotton commercially in Puerto Rico is economically impractical from the point of view of the dollar yield per acre, and that it is not a practical cotton to process as compared to such Egyptian or American cottons as Pima 32 or Amsak, seems to be unwarranted. The yields of seed cotton obtained, as shown on tables 2 and 3, the tests carried out by the Laboratory of the Research and Testing Division, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Clemson, S. C., and their conclusion that Sea Island can be carded and combed at considerably higher rates of production than the 3½ pounds per hour used for the sample tested, and still enable the fine yarn mills to make yarns of acceptable grade, all indicate that growing Sea Island is economically feasible in Puerto Rico.

On the basis of the varieties available today and of the data presented, Montserrat Sea Island should be the variety to be considered, if a cotton mill were to be established in Puerto Rico, since it not only yields as much as any other cotton variety in the southern part of Puerto Rico, but its fiber is of better quality, and so would be the yarn and the goods manufactured therefrom.

The Station has already initiated a cotton-breeding project, and within the next 5 to 10 years we may hope to have a still better variety for the commercial production of cotton in Puerto Rico.

SUMMARY

Sea Island cotton, which has been cultivated in Puerto Rico for many years, is an important agricultural commodity for the minor crop growers or sharecroppers. With good management it is economically practical from the point of view of the dollar yield per acre.

The production of cotton has fluctuated considerably, as it has had no definite market since the cotton-ginning company suspended operations in the Island. The milling of cotton in Puerto Rico could probably do most to solve the cotton problem in a more permanent and satisfactory way. In the light of our experimental data from both field and the laboratory it is clearly shown that this type of cotton produces satisfactory yields of fine lint.

Sealand is a productive variety of cotton with a lower-quality fiber and good agronomic characteristics which could be used for the production of cotton at lower costs.

When the climate and weather conditions are suitable, additional good crops of cotton can be obtained from the same plants when the Sea Island, Montserrat variety, and Sealand are properly pruned.

RESUMEN

El algodón Sea Island se ha venido cultivando en Puerto Rico por muchos años como medio de vida para pequeños agricultores o agregados. Bien administrado el cultivo del algodón resulta remunerativo.

La producción de algodón en Puerto Rico ha fluctuado considerablemente debido a que no ha tenido un mercado seguro desde que se retiró de la Isla la San Juan Ginnery Company, única firma que por algún tiempo había venido comprando el algodón en rama producido aquí.

No hay duda de que la instalación de un telar que procesara nuestro algodón ayudaría grandemente a resolver el problema que actualmente confronta esta empresa agrícola.

Los datos de campo y laboratorio indican que el algodón Sea Island produce en Puerto Rico una fibra larga y de superior calidad.

La variedad Sealand es productiva aunque su fibra es de calidad inferior a la del Sea Island. Su alto rendimiento por cuerda amerita la variedad Sealand como recomendable para producir algodón a más bajos costos.

Cuando las condiciones climáticas son adecuadas se puede lograr una cosecha adicional si se podan las plantas de algodón, tanto de la variedad Montserrat (Sea Island) como las de la Sealand.

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Control of Damping-off of Tobacco in Seedbeds by the Use of Gaseous Soil Fumigants

R. H. Segall and L. López-Matos[1]

INTRODUCTION

The damping-off of tobacco grown in seedbeds in Puerto Rico is caused mainly by *Phythphthora parasitica*, *Pythium debaryanum*, and *Pellicularia filamentosa* (*Rhizoctonia solani*). Two types of damping-off are known—pre-emergence in which the seedling is killed before it emerges from the soil, and post-emergence in which the emerged seedling is infected near the soil level.

The incidence of damping-off is related to soil moisture, *i.e.* the higher the soil moisture, the greater the severity. If the rainfall is high when tobacco is in the seedbeds from August to October, damping-off may completely destroy the tobacco seedlings so that they will have to be replanted. As a result, the plants are grown during an unfavorable part of the season with the resultant reduction in quality and yield. A phase of damping-off often overlooked is the occurrence of incipient lesions on the underground portions of the tobacco seedlings. These lesions are too small to be noticed at the time the seedlings are transplanted but may enlarge and cause death of the plants in the field. These dead plants must be replaced by other seedlings resulting in an uneven stand.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Experiments for the control of damping-off of tobacco in seedbeds in Puerto Rico were described by Alvarez and López (2).[2] Bordeaux mixture, 4–3–50 and copper oxychloride (Compound A), 2 pounds per 100 gallons of water applied at the rate of 100 to 250 gallons per 100 square yards at weekly intervals for 7 weeks, adequately controlled damping-off. This rate of application is much higher than that recommended in other areas. In Connecticut, Anderson (1) recommended a rate of 3 to 5 gallons per 100 square yards, while Street (14) in Pennsylvania recommended 10 gallons for the same area. Kincaid (6) suggested the fungicides be applied as dusts at the rate of 30 to 50 pounds per 100 square yards. In these areas blue mold, caused by *Peronospora tabacina*, is the most important disease attacking tobacco growing in the seedbed and requires a smaller dosage for effec-

[1] Formerly Associate Plant Pathologist, and Assistant Plant Pathologist, respectively, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras, P.R.

[2] Numbers in parentheses refer to Literature Cited, pp. 65–6.

tive control than damping-off does. Blue mold has not been reported from Puerto Rico.

Gaseous soil fumigants have been used successfully to control damping-off. When confined under a gasproof cover methyl bromide is the most commonly used gaseous fumigant for the control of pathogenic fungi, nematodes, and weeds, as shown by Taylor and McBeth (15), Godfrey and Young (5), Newhall and Lear (13), and Lear (10). Use of methyl bromide in outdoor seedbeds was described by Dieter and Coulter (3), Kopitke (9), and Marvel (11). In tobacco seedbeds Freeman (4) reported successful control of weeds, and Koch (7) and Stover (8) reported control of the fungi *Rhizoctonia* and *Pythium* and also of pathogenic nematodes. Chloropicrin has only recently been formulated in a gaseous or aerosol form and was reported by Newhall (12) to be effective in a manner similar to that of methyl bromide.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS AND RESULTS

Since damping-off of tobacco in seedbeds is still a serious problem and removing weeds by hand is an expensive operation, it was thought that the gaseous soil fumigants should be tested to determine whether this method of soil fumigation would be as effective in the temperate regions of the continental United States and Canada.

Outdoor seedbeds were prepared at two locations in the Caguas valley, at Caguas on Caguas sandy clay loam, and at Gurabo on Mabi clay. The beds to be treated were covered with a gasproof tarpaulin of polyethylene plastic, the edges of which were covered with sand for sealing in the gas. The covers were supported on wire arches 6 inches above the soil surface to form an air chamber for diffusion of the fumigant. The fumigant, methyl bromide with 2-percent chloropicrin (Dowfume MC-2), was applied from 1-pound cans by means of a MacLean portable dispenser. Chloropicrin aerosol, 50-percent active, was applied from a 50-pound cylinder. Two replicates were used for each treatment. Both fumigants were applied at rates of 2 and 4 pounds per 100 square feet for 48 hours. Both fumigants were used at Caguas but only methyl bromide at Gurabo. Tobacco was sown in the seedbeds 1 week after treatment at Caguas and 3 weeks after that at Gurabo. Starting 3 weeks after the seeds were sown, and when the seedlings had emerged, one-half of each treatment was drenched with copper oxychloride, (Compound A) at the rate of 2 pounds per 100 gallons, 6 gallons per 100 square feet at weekly intervals for 6 weeks.

Conditions were favorable for damping-off. Frequent rains often resulted in soil moistures approaching saturation. The extent of damping-off was visually estimated 1 week before the plants were transplanted to the field. The percentage of damping-off is given in table 1.

Seedbed plots treated with methyl bromide at 2 pounds per 100 square

TABLE 1.—*Effectiveness of gaseous soil fumigants for the control of damping-off in tobacco seedbeds*

Treatment	Dosage per 100 sq. ft.	Plants damped-off at—	
		Caguas	Gurabo
	Lb.	*Percent*	*Percent*
Methyl bromide	2	29	25
Methyl bromide and Cu[1]	2	14	18
Methyl bromide	4	54	21
Methyl bromide and Cu[1]	4	39	14
Chloropicrin aerosol	2	39	—
Chloropicrin aerosol and Cu[1]	2	18	—
Chloropicrin aerosol	4	39	—
Chloropicrin aerosol and Cu[1]	4	21	—
Cu[1] only		61	50
Untreated		71	43
L.S.D. at:			
5 percent		16.3	6.6
1 percent		36.2	8.9
Over-all difference significant at 1 percent			

[1] Copper oxychloride (Dupont Compound A), 2 lb./100 gal. applied at rate of 5 gal. per 100 sq. ft. at weekly intervals for 6 weeks.

feet at Caguas, 2 and 4 pounds per 100 square feet at Gurabo, and chloropicrin aerosol at 2 and 4 pounds had significantly less damping-off than untreated plots or those treated with copper oxychloride only. Applications at the rate of 2 pounds were as effective as 4 pounds in controlling damping-off with chloropicrin aerosol. Drenching the fumigated plots with copper oxychloride increased control of damping-off in all cases.

Six weeks after treatment with methyl bromide seedbeds were completely free of weeds, but those treated with chloropicrin aerosol contained nut grass, *Cyperus rotundus L.* The herbicide 2,4-D used in adjoining tobacco seedbeds was not effective in controlling grasses and the plots had to be weeded by hand.

SUMMARY

The gaseous soil fumigants, methyl bromide and chloropicrin aerosol, have the following advantages for tobacco seedbeds: 1. They are more effective in the control of damping-off in Puerto Rico than fungicides previously recommended. 2. Their herbicidal properties eliminate the need for hand-weeding, an expensive and time-consuming operation. 3. Only one application is needed, and this is made before seeding the tobacco, thus eliminating the critical timing required for fungicide application.

The emergence of seedlings was higher in beds treated with the soil fumigant. This increased emergence probably occurred because pre-emergence damping-off was controlled, and no hand-weeding was necessary, so that no seedlings were destroyed in the process of hand-weeding.

The expense of the soil-fumigation method is greater than that of the fungicide drench. In addition to the fumigant it is necessary to purchase an applicator and gasproof covers. However, the gaseous soil-fumigation treatment eliminates the need for hand-weeding and gives better control of damping-off. Therefore the soil-fumigation method could be economically feasible.

RESUMEN

Los fumigantes gaseosos del suelo, bromuro de metilo y aerosol cloropicrino, ofrecen las siguientes ventajas en su aplicación a los semilleros de tabaco:

1. Son más eficaces para el control del sancocho que los demás fungicidas que se han venido recomendando hasta ahora en Puerto Rico.

2. Sus propiedades, en cuanto a eliminar los yerbajos, hacen innecesarios los continuos desyerbos a mano que a la vez que son costosos, ocupan mucho tiempo al agricultor.

3. Se necesita una sola aplicación de cualquiera de estos fumigantes, la cual se hace antes de regar la semilla de tabaco. Esto evita tener que esperar el tiempo preciso y adecuado que hasta ahora se requería para aplicar los fungicidas al semillero.

Durante el estudio se observó que el porcentaje de emergencia de las plantitas fué mayor donde se aplicaron estos fumigantes. Este hecho parece deberse a que el sancocho pudo eliminarse antes de la emergencia de las plantitas y a que, no habiendo necesidad de erradicar yerbajos se prescindió de la pérdida normal de plantitas arrancadas mientras se verifican los desyerbos a mano.

Si bien es verdad que la fumigación del semillero de tabaco por medio de estos fumigantes gaseosos resulta más costosa, pues hay que comprar el equipo adecuado para tal propósito, también deben tomarse en cuenta su eficacia para controlar el sancocho, la eliminación de los desyerbos a mano y el mayor porcentaje de plantitas que puede lograrse. Mirados ambos aspectos se podría concluir que hay la posibilidad de que este método de fumigación pueda ser factible y económico como una nueva práctica.

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Susceptibility of Some Sugarcane Varieties to the Heat Treatment Used in the Control of Chlorotic Streak

José Adsuar[1]

INTRODUCTION

The presence of chlorotic streak, a virus disease of sugarcane, was first recognized in Puerto Rico by Wilbrink, Bell, and Martin (1)[2] during the 1932 Congress of the International Society of Sugar Cane Technologists. In 1946 Adsuar (2) was able to confirm experimentally its presence in Puerto Rico in the sugarcane variety P.O.J. 2878.

Chlorotic streak is of considerable economic importance since it is known to cause a marked reduction in yields of cane and in the germination and tillering of the plant. Recent experiments conducted at this Agricultural Experiment Station by Landrau and Adsuar (3) conclusively reveal that, under our conditions, chlorotic streak causes a significant reduction in the yield of sugar per acre.

Very little is known concerning the susceptibility of different varieties to the disease. Nevertheless, field observations have shown that the sugarcane variety P.O.J. 2878, which in 1953 occupied 59.6 percent of the area dedicated to sugarcane production in Puerto Rico, is highly susceptible to chlorotic streak. Furthermore, some of the varieties bred in Puerto Rico and Barbados have also shown susceptibility to the disease. Barbados 34104 and 37161, P.R. 902 and 905, and M. 336 are all susceptible under certain climatic conditions.

OBJECTIVE

Fortunately, it has been demonstrated that immersion of infected cuttings in hot water at 52° C. for 20 minutes effectively controls the incidence of the disease and increases the yield of cane and sugar. However, since it is known that the hot-water treatment (4) may adversely affect the germination and vitality of the different varieties, it was considered wise to test especially those cane varieties recommended by this Agricultural Experiment Station (5) as superior under our conditions.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The equipment used for treating the cuttings has already been described (3). The cane stalks were divided into three-eyed cuttings. Cuttings with

[1] Phytopathologist, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras, P.R.

[2] Numbers in parentheses refer to Literature Cited, p. 69.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage of buds germinated by different sugarcane varieties as influenced by hot-water treatment*

Varieties	Germination when—	
	Treated	Untreated
	Percent	*Percent*
H. 328560	52.8	37.3
P.R. 902	32.7	24.6
P.R. 905	28.4	30.1
P.R. 1000	28.9	18.0
B. 37161	63.9	27.8
M. 336	5.8	17.4
B. 40105	66.6	38.4
B. 37172	61.6	35.4
H. 371933	73.9	61.8
P.R. 907	57.5	38.0
B. 41227	47.1	60.2
P.R. 980	51.2	43.5
Co. 281	59.8	68.3

one or more dead or otherwise defective eyes or buds were discarded. Both treated and untreated cuttings of each variety were planted side by side in rows in the field. For the purpose of the experiment, only the total number of eyes of planted cuttings from each variety, treated or untreated, were taken into consideration and counts were made on the basis of germinated eyes.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the results of the experiment.

The treatment adversely affected the germination percentage of M. 336 and B. 41227 at the 1-percent point and of Co. 281 at the 5-percent point. It was beneficial to the germination of varieties H. 328560, P.R. 1000, B. 37161, B. 40105, B. 37172, B. 371933, and P.R. 907 at the 1-percent point and of P.R. 902 at the 5-percent point. It had no significant effect on the germination of P.R. 905 and P.R. 980.

SUMMARY

Chlorotic streak, a virus disease of sugarcane, is known to occur in Puerto Rico and to cause a reduction in germination, tillering, and yield of sugarcane per acre.

Immersion of the infected cane in hot water at 52° C. for 20 minutes inactivated the virus and increased the yield of cane and sugar.

It is also known that the hot-water treatment may adversely affect the germination of the different varieties.

Thirteen of the best sugarcane varieties as recommended by this Agricultural Experiment Station were tested for susceptibility to the hot-water treatment.

The treatment adversely affected the germination percentage of M. 336, B. 41227, and Co. 281. It stimulated the germination of varieties H. 328560, P.R. 1000, B. 37161, B. 40105, B. 37172, B. 371933, P.R. 907, and P.R. 902. It had no significant effect on the germination of P.R. 905 and P.R. 980.

RESUMEN

La estría clorótica de la caña de azúcar es una enfermedad causada por un virus que reduce notablemente la producción de azúcar por cuerda.

El tratamiento para combatir esta enfermedad consiste en sumergir la caña afectada por 20 minutos en agua calentada a 52° C.

Se sabe que el tratamiento puede afectar la germinación de las distintas variedades. Se sometieron trece de las mejores variedades de caña de azúcar recomendada por la Estación Experimental al tratamiento con calor para determinar como se afectaba la germinación de las mismas.

El tratamiento afectó adversamente la germinación de las variedades M. 336, B. 41227 y Co. 281. Estimuló la germinación de las variedades H. 328560, P.R. 1000, B. 37161, B. 40105, B. 37172, B. 371933, P.R. 907 y P.R. 902. No influyó en forma alguna sobre la germinación de las variedades P.R. 905 y P.R. 980.

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Differential Response of Some Tropical Soils to Additions of Organic Matter

M. A. Lugo-López, E. Hernández-Medina, and P. Landrau, Jr.[1]

INTRODUCTION

The question of soil organic-matter depletion in tropical areas is frequently brought up in exaggerated terms. This has been because of the prevailing ideas that organic-matter levels are low in all tropical soils as compared to soils of the Temperate Zone. Smith, *et al.* (9)[2] have shown that the organic-matter contents of tropical soils of Puerto Rico are at least as high as those of many of the best soils of the Temperate Zone.

This paper reports attempts to show the differential response of certain tropical soils of Puerto Rico to organic-matter additions. For these purposes data have been gathered from six field experiments in the humid region of Puerto Rico in areas of latosolic and nonlatosolic soils. Data will be presented in support of the hypothesis that additions of organic-matter sources to normal, moderately fertile latosols with an open, porous structure are of rather doubtful value, while such additions may increase the organic-matter levels of heavy-textured nonlatosolic soils of moderate fertility which are in an unfavorable physical condition.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

FIELDWORK

Six field experiments from which the data herein presented were obtained, will be discussed briefly. Complete details about each one have been presented elsewhere (2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8). Data from each are brought together and analyzed here with the main objective of detecting the influence that organic-matter additions may exert on soils of different nature. Table 1 gives information regarding the location, soil type and group, type of experiment, duration, and indicator crop used.

Experiment 1 was conducted from March 1944 to March 1948, with the primary purpose of evaluating the practice of mulching with sugarcane trash as compared to burning it, from the soil conservation standpoint. The soil was a Catalina clay, a very deep reddish-brown latosol, with a 45- to 50-percent slope. Four crops of sugarcane were harvested. Each of the

[1] Associate Soil Scientist, Associate Horticulturist, and Assistant Agronomist, respectively, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras, P.R. Appreciation is expressed to J. A. Bonnet and other Station staff members who participated in one way or another in planning and executing the fieldwork from where soil samples were obtained later for the work herein reported.

[2] Numbers in parentheses refer to Literature Cited, pp. 76–7.

TABLE 1.—*General information concerning the 6 field experiments from which data on soil organic matter and nitrogen levels are reported*

Experiment identification No.	Location	Soil type and group	Type of experiment	Indicator crop
1	Mayagüez	Catalina clay—latosol	Trash handling	Sugarcane
2	Isabela	Coto clay—latosol	do.	Do.
3	Río Piedras	Vega Alta silty clay—nonlatosol	do.	Do.
4	Arecibo	Bayamón silty clay—latosol	Filter press-cake evaluation	Pineapple
5	Corozal	Lares clay—nonlatosol	do.	Do.
6	Mayagüez	Catalina clay—latosol	Green-manure	Sweetpotatoes, corn

first three crops received a 14–6–8 fertilizer at a rate of 1,200 pounds to the acre, but the fourth crop received only 600 pounds of the same fertilizer. Run-off plots with catchment tanks facilitated the measurement of soil and water losses. Bulk samples from the upper 6 inches of soil were taken following the last harvest.

Experiment 2 has been under way for the past 7 years on a Coto clay, a yellowish-brown latosol in very good physical condition, highly porous, but of moderately low fertility. The procedures for handling the sugarcane trash were as follows: Trash aligned, trash aligned and clean banks furrowed, trash left undisturbed over the surface, and trash burned. The field as a whole receives each year an application of 1,200 pounds to the acre of a 15–3–10 fertilizer. Bulk samples from the upper 6 or 8 inches of the soil, and soil cores at 0 to 3 and 4 to 7 inches, were taken after harvesting the sixth crop.

Experiment 3 has been going on for the past 10 years on a nearly level Vega Alta silty clay, a nonlatosol of moderate fertility, rather heavy, and imperfectly drained. The sugarcane trash is handled yearly after harvest in each of three ways, namely, aligned in alternate banks, buried, or burned. Each crop was fertilized in the same way as the Isabela experiment previously described. Following the sixth ratoon-crop (seventh in the crop cycle) harvest, soil samples were taken for laboratory analyses.

Experiments 4 and 5 were designed to test the influence of filter-press cake on pineapple yields and soil properties. The experiments were rather complex, involving four levels of filter-press cake, and five of fertilizer, liming, and iron sprays. In this paper only two levels of filter-press cake,

where all other variables were kept constant, will be considered. In one treatment, filter-press cake was worked into the surface 6 inches of soil at a rate of 32 tons to the acre, and a 12–6–10 fertilizer was applied after planting at a rate of 3,000 pounds to the acre. No filter-press cake was used in the other treatment, but the same quantity of fertilizer was applied. Bulk samples were taken at both experimental fields following harvest, some 20 months after treatment, and to a depth of 6 inches. In addition, 1- to 4-inch-deep soil cores were taken in experiment 5. Experiment 4 was located on a Bayamón silty clay, an acid, deep latosol of the coastal plains, in very good physical condition, but of rather low fertility. Experiment 5 was located on a Lares clay, a medium-friable nonlatosol occurring in terrace formations.

Experiment 6 was conducted on a Catalina clay, a latosol, in the same general area where experiment 1 was laid out. The following crop rotation was used: Two legume crops, one sweetpotato crop, two legume crops, and two corn crops. The legume crops were fertilized with lime at a rate of 4 tons and phosphorus at a rate of 100 pounds of P_2O_5 to the acre. The second corn crop was fertilized with muriate of potash at a rate of 250 pounds of K_2O and superphosphate at a rate of 100 pounds of P_2O_5 to the acre. The equivalent of 4.5 to 6 tons of green manure was incorporated into the soil per crop of velvet beans, or a total of 9 to 12 tons from the two crops of velvet beans, before planting sweetpotatoes and corn, respectively. Soil samples were taken after the first corn crop (sixth on the rotation) was harvested.

LABORATORY WORK

Organic-matter determinations were made on all soil samples by the chromic acid titration method, as modified by Walkley and Black (11). Total nitrogen was determined by the standard Kjeldahl method. In experiments 2, 3, and 5, measurements were made of water retention at pF 1.78 by using tension tables. Other chemical and physical data were obtained from bulk and core soil samples, but they have been presented elsewhere previously (6, 7, 8).

RESULTS

A summary of the data pertaining to soil organic-matter and nitrogen levels in soils of different nature following differential organic-matter-management practices is given in table 2. The data from experiment 1 indicate that mulching with sugarcane trash did not affect the organic-matter level of this latosol. The following tabulation, adapted from data of Bonnet, *et al.* (2), gives the weighted mean yields and soil losses for the duration

TABLE 2.—*Organic-matter and nitrogen levels of humid-region tropical soils of different nature following differential organic-matter management*

Experiment identification No.	Soil group	Soil treatment	Soil organic-matter level	Soil nitrogen
			Percent	*Percent*
1	Latosol	Sugarcane trash used as mulch	3.73	0.20
		Sugarcane trash burned	3.75	.23
2	do.	Sugarcane trash aligned	2.71	.19
		Sugarcane trash aligned and clean banks furrowed	2.51	.18
		Sugarcane trash left undisturbed	2.54	.18
		Sugarcane trash burned	2.66	.18
3	Nonlatosol	Sugarcane trash aligned	1.70	.14
		Sugarcane trash buried	1.82	.15
		Sugarcane trash burned	1.42[1]	.14
4	Latosol	32 tons per acre of filter-press cake	2.42	.15
		No filter-press cake	2.34	.14
5	Nonlatosol	32 tons per acre of filter-press cake	2.81[2]	.17
		No filter-press cake	2.26	.15
6	Latosol	18 to 24 tons per acre velvetbean leaves and vines	1.90	.17
		No green manure	1.80	.17

[1] Highly significant levels in trash aligned and buried as compared to trash burned.
[2] Significant difference between treatments.

of the experiment:

	Mulched	*Unmulched*
Sugar yields (tons per acre)	3.3	3.5
Soil losses (tons per acre)	.7	7.2

Where the cane trash was returned to the soil as a mulch, erosion losses were only one-tenth as compared with those when it was destroyed. However, even the continuous burning of the trash caused no measurable decline in sugar yields or in soil organic-matter or nitrogen levels during the 4-year period of the test, but mulching was an effective soil conservation practice in this latosol with a 45- to 50-percent slope.

Data from experiment 2 further show that no significant difference in the organic-matter content of latosols could be measured after 5 years of either burning or returning the sugarcane trash to the soil. Yields were not affected either (6). However, from a practical standpoint it might prove economically advantageous to leave the trash undisturbed over the surface of the soil in many areas. Weeds will be smothered to a large extent thus

decreasing cultivation costs. In addition, direct moisture-vaporization losses from the soil could be reduced.

The results of the analytical work with the samples of nonlatosolic soil taken from the plots of experiment 3 disclosed significantly lower organic-matter levels where the trash was burned than where it was either buried or aligned. In a previous publication (5) it was shown that the effect of these treatments after 6 years of continuous cane growing was reflected in significant yield differences favoring trash conservation as compared to trash burning.

As is shown in table 2 the organic-matter content of Bayamón silty clay, a latosol, was not affected by the addition of 32 tons of filter-press cake to the acre. However, when the same treatment was given to the nonlatosolic Lares clay it resulted in significantly increasing the organic-matter content of the soil from 2.26 to 2.81 percent. The following tabulation summarizes the yield response, in tons per acre of pineapples, attributable to treatment in these two experiments:

Filter-press-cake application	*Yield on latosol*	*Yield on nonlatosol*
0	20.32	14.42
32 tons per acre	21.48	19.76

Yield increases of over 5 tons of fruit could be attributed to some extent to improving the organic-matter level of the nonlatosolic soil.

Table 2 further shows that no increases in the soil reserves of organic matter and nitrogen of the latosol Catalina clay could be measured after incorporating velvet bean green manure. However, significant yield increases of sweetpotatoes and corn were obtained (3). Perhaps, the increased yields were attributable to an increased nitrogen supply through the activity of the legume. This nitrogen was used quickly by the growing crops. The rapid release of nitrogen under tropical conditions has been emphasized lately (10). A legume mulch can provide an economical and continuous supply of nitrogen for plant growth.

Soil-moisture retention at tensions in the vicinity of pF 1.78 increased in response to soil organic-matter increases in nonlatosols as follows: From 45 to 60 percent when sugarcane trash was conserved rather than destroyed through burning (experiment 3) and from 36 to 40 when filter-press cake was added at the rate of 32 tons to the acre (experiment 4). No increases in moisture retention at pF 1.78 were measured in a latosol where soil organic-matter levels remained unaffected by treatment.

DISCUSSION

The tropical soils of Puerto Rico vary widely in their nature, mainly in response to variations in climatic factors. Those of the humid regions can be roughly grouped into two broad divisions, lateritic soils or latosols and

nonlatosols or nonlateritic soils. The latosols are products of the humid tropical weathering of rocks which are usually basic in reaction, resulting in acidic material high in free sesquioxides, low in free silica, of moderate exchange capacity, very permeable to air and water, and in many instances, of great depth, but exhibiting rather little differentiation into soil horizons. They have a high clay content with predominance of kaolinite and iron oxides in the clay fractions. They are generally found in regions with mean annual temperatures above 70°F., and annual rainfall above 60 inches. They can be easily worked even after a rain, and are rather resistant to erosion as compared with other soils of similar climatic and relief conditions and under identical systems of management.

Nonlatosols of the humid tropical areas are generally heavier than their latosolic textural equivalents, even when they contain the same clay on a percentage basis. Generally, in addition to kaolinite, there are other clay minerals of the 2:1 lattice type in their clay fraction. They are not as permeable to air and water, often present practical drainage problems, and are rather difficult to work and manage during the rainy season.

In general terms, it has been shown (9) that there are rather high reserves of organic matter and nitrogen in the soils of Puerto Rico. Their full utilization and conservation appears to be a worthy goal for crop production and fertility maintenance in the Island. The predominant factors in the organic-matter balance are mostly climatic or perhaps climatic and biotic. Thus, latosols which are rather old soils, have probably reached a level of equilibrium with the surrounding ecological forces, and under natural conditions, or under proper conservation farming, approach their maximum retention of organic matter. Aeration and leaching, which are favored by the physical condition of latosols, are in good measure the controlling factors.

The evidence presented in this paper tends to show that the addition of low-nitrogen organic-matter sources, such as sugarcane trash and filter-press cake, to latosols for the purpose of raising their organic-matter contents, is of rather doubtful value, since organic-matter levels remain unaffected and crop yields are not improved. Data[3] obtained from a field of Coto clay (a yellowish-brown latosol) that has been for over 20 years in cane show an organic-matter level of approximately 3 percent. Subsequently, a section of that field was used to grow clean-cultivated crops for 4 years, while the rest was planted to cane continuously. The levels of organic matter remained unaffected. The response in food-crop yields reported from legume green-manure additions to a latosol may well be explained on the basis of the increased and continuous nitrogen supply available to the food-crop plants following the legume crops.

[3] Vicente-Chandler, J., Unpublished data from Agricultural Research Service Cooperative Project, 1953.

There was a marked response to low-nitrogen organic-matter sources in the humid-region nonlatosolic soils which resulted in significant increases in the soil organic-matter level. It must be kept in mind that these soils were reasonably well fertilized both for the sugarcane and pineapple crops. Significant yield increases of both crops were obtained which may be attributed to the favorable effects of increased organic-matter levels on the physical condition of the soils.

Most studies along this line have shown that measurable changes in the organic-matter level of soils cannot be determined with precision over a short period of years. However, the data presented in this paper provide important reference points of what to expect from organic-matter additions to soils of different nature.

SUMMARY

Data are presented in support of the hypothesis that additions of organic-matter sources to normal latosols with an open, porous structure are of rather doubtful value, while in heavy-textured nonlatosols of moderate fertility, but unfavorable physical condition, such additions may result in increased organic-matter levels. No increases were measured when latosols were treated with different quantities of sugarcane trash, filter-press cake, and velvet bean green manure. Definite increases were obtained from the same treatments in nonlatosols.

RESUMEN

Se presentan aquí datos para verificar la hipótesis de que las adiciones de materia orgánica a suelos lateríticos, de condición física favorable, son de valor dudoso; mientras que en el caso de suelos no lateríticos, con condiciones físicas desfavorables, estas aplicaciones pueden aumentar efectivamente los niveles de materia orgánica.

No su pudieron medir aumentos en el contenido de materia orgánica de suelos lateríticos cuando se trataron con diferentes cantidades de paja de caña, cachaza y abonos verdes de habichuelas terciopelo. En suelos no lateríticos se midieron aumentos positivos cuando se trataron en la forma descrita anteriormente.

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Value of Roofing Tower Silos and of Paper and Earth Covers for Trench Silos

Luis Rivera Brenes[1]

INTRODUCTION

After the program of pasture improvement and silo building was started by the Commonwealth Department of Agriculture and Commerce during the fiscal year 1953–54, a problem arose[2] as to the relative benefits of covering the chopped material in trench silos with paper and dirt, and of roofing tower silos. The question was, does the degree of top spoilage and the resulting quality of the silage make the cover and/or the roof necessary?

It was logical to assume that, if the amount of top spoilage and the quality of the resulting silage, as judged by the color, odor, and acceptance by the animals, were practically the same for covered and uncovered, and roofed and unroofed tower silos, there was no need of either. This would represent a saving to the farmers, more so in the case of big trench silos, which they first cover with paper and dirt, or dirt alone, later having to remove that cover in order to use the silage. Both operations represent considerable expense, even if mechanized.

It was thought also that, while the roof and the cover might be completely necessary to protect the silage against freezing, in the Temperate Zone, in Puerto Rico, where freezing does not occur, both might not be necessary.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Because extensive silo building and silage-making are relatively recent in Puerto Rico, there is no literature related to the problem here presented.

In the Temperate Zone, the literature relates to roofs and covers of the different types of silos, and refers to the different kinds and their effect on reducing top spoilage.

In New Zealand, Sears and Goodal (1),[3] comparing pit and stack silos, found that adequate consolidation of the top layers of stacks by means of an earth cap reduced losses appreciably, but provided no additional protection against rain.

[1] Animal Husbandman, Head, Animal Husbandry Department, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras, P.R.

[2] The Pasture Specialist of the Extension Service, Elías Hernández, and E. Alverio from the Commonwealth Department of Agriculture met with the problem in the field and brought it to our consideration.

[3] Numbers in parentheses refer to Literature Cited, p. 82.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

TRENCH SILOS

A hole 30 feet long, 20 feet wide, and 10 feet deep was dug by a bulldozer. The trench was divided by wooden walls into six holes 10 x 10 feet. After being filled, three of the holes were covered with Sisalkraft paper and about 8 inches of dirt was placed on top. In the other three holes the content was left exposed. The ensiled material in all six holes was thoroughly trampled.

TOWER SILOS

The tower silos used were miniatures of 7.5 x 15 feet, each one holding around 10 tons of material. Three of these silos were left unroofed for this experiment. The material ensiled was thoroughly trampled as in the trench silo.

Merker grass mixed with some Pará and cane tops was used to fill the silos. The material was weighed in the trucks using lodometers. In the trench silos the weight of the material used for each hole was an average for the six. As the holes were equal in size the total ensiled was recorded and divided by six. For the tower silos the weight of the material ensiled was recorded individually.

PROCEDURE

Rainfall records were taken from the Station's weather station.

The silos were opened after 3 months and the spoiled material as well as the edible part were weighed carefully. Observations of quality were made based on general appearance, odor, and color. All the resulting silage was fed to the cows in the Station herd.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The six holes into which the trench silo was divided received practically the same quantity of material per hole: 26,770 pounds, on the average. A comparison of the amounts of material put into the roofed and unroofed tower silos is as follows:

Silos	*Green material in pounds*	*Difference in pounds*	*Difference in percentage*
Without roof	14,183	976	7.39
With roof	13,207		

Table 1 presents the rainfall data for the period when the material was put into the silos until they were emptied.

The roof used was almost flat, permitting filling only up to a certain limit at which the men could work. In the unroofed silos the limit was the upper

TABLE 1.—*Monthly rainfall in inches for the period during which the material was in the experimental silos*

Month or period	Total for trench silos	Total for tower silos
Oct. 21–31, 1954	1.56	—
November	2.26	2.26
December	3.16	3.16
January 1955	1.75	1.75
February	2.48	2.49
Mar. 1–5	—	.63
Total	11.21	10.28

edge, permitting the placement of material that could very well be trampled up to that point. Silos with aluminum domes can be filled up to the upper border too. The fact that more material can be put into the unroofed than in the flat-top silos is an advantage also favoring the domed type.

A summary of the statistical analyses for the differences in the quantities of top spoilage in trench and tower silos is given herewith:

Item	*Average spoiled material Pounds*
Tower silos:	
Without roof	2,502
With roof	2,325
Difference	177
L.S.D. for 5-percent level	940
L.S.D. for 1-percent level	1,559
Mean difference not significant.	
Trench silos:	
Uncovered	3,098
Covered	2,226
Difference	872
L.S.D. for 5-percent level	502
L.S.D. for 1-percent level	833
Mean difference highly significant.	

The roof had no influence in lessening the quantity of top spoilage in the tower silos used in the experiment reported here. Apparently the roof is unnecessary if the only thing desired is to reduce top spoilage.

Unloading equipment can be installed on silos with or without a roof, but a roof will protect the equipment. Domed roofs, besides protecting the equipment, will also permit the filling and trampling of the material up to the upper edge of the silo, which is an advantage over the flat-tops.

In trench silos the difference between the quantities of top spoilage in the covered and uncovered holes was highly significant. This indicates that protection of the material, together with the pressure exerted by the weight

of the dirt put on top, is necessary to reduce top spoilage in this kind of silo where so much surface is exposed in addition to the corners where more spoilage always occurs.

Rainfall was not excessive (see table 1) since the average for the northern coastal plains is around 60 inches a year (2). Total precipitation during the conservation period is a factor that should be taken into consideration in relation to the cover of trench silos because of the surface exposed.

The normal rainfall in the northern section of the Island will probably not harm the material in the open tower silos, especially when provided with good drainage; that is, it will not increase top spoilage. In the south and southwest, where the average rainfall is around 30 inches (2) a year, this is a matter of even less concern. It was mentioned in the Literature Review that the protection of stack silos against rainfall produced no beneficial effects in the work of Sears and Goodal in New Zealand. This was probably because of the good drainage in this type of silos.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In its silo-building campaign the Department of Agriculture and Commerce and the Agricultural Extension Service fieldmen have often been asked to make recommendations about the relative benefits of the roof in tower silos and the use of cover in trench silos. The problem arose when a local firm began constructing roofless silos, and the cost of covering the material in big trench silos began to be considered, as well as the removal of that cover when the silage was to be used.

An experiment was conducted to determine whether it was necessary to cover the trench silos, and whether the roof was necessary in tower silos, judging from the extent of top spoilage and the general quality of the edible portion. The findings apply, of course, under Puerto Rican conditions.

Covering is necessary for trench silos. So much surface is exposed that the resulting top spoilage is very large if the contents are not protected.

According to the results obtained in this experiment a roof is not necessary for tower silos; no better quality silage and no less top spoilage were obtained by its use. If unloading equipment is to be used, though, a roof will protect such equipment.

Another fact to be considered is the following: It was found in the work reported here that the absence of a roof permitted filling the silo up to the edges, and also a more thorough trampling of the material. The same results can be obtained with domed roofs. Flat roofs will not permit a thorough trampling of the material up to the edges because men cannot work inside the silo at that level.

RESUMEN, CONCLUSIONES, Y RECOMENDACIONES

Durante la campaña para la construcción de silos, los agentes de campo del Departamento de Agricultura y Comercio y del Servicio de Extensión

Agrícola se enfrentaron con el problema de tener que hacer recomendaciones en cuanto a los beneficios relativos del techado de los silos de torre y el uso de cubiertas para los de trinchera. El problema surgió cuando una firma local empezó a construir silos de torre, sin techo, y cuando se pensó en el costo de cubrir los silos grandes de trinchera con el consiguiente trabajo que significaría remover esa cubierta al empezar a usar el ensilaje.

Para dilucidar este problema, se llevó a cabo un experimento cuyo objetivo fué determinar si era necesario cubrir los silos de trinchera y si se hacía indispensable el techo en los silos de torre, tomando en consideración la cantidad de ensilaje que se dañara en su parte superior y la calidad del resto del ensilaje usable.

Se determinó que es necesario cubrir los silos de trinchera. Es tanta la superficie que se expone a la intemperie en estos silos que la cantidad de ensilaje que se deteriora resulta muy grande.

De los resultados de este experimento, también se determinó que los silos de torre no necesitan techo porque no se obtuvo mejor calidad de ensilaje ni se aminoraron las pérdidas de ensilaje en su parte superior con su uso. No obstante, si se va a usar equipo para disponer del ensilaje el techo protegería el mismo.

Otra ventaja que se observó en el experimento, en cuanto a la ausencia de techo en los silos de torre, fué que bajo estas condiciones se puede llenar el silo hasta sus bordes, permitiendo apisonar bien el material. Los mismos resultados se obtienen usando techos del tipo dómico. Los techos planos no permiten llenar el silo hasta los bordes porque esto hace imposible, a ese nivel, que los obreros puedan apisonar bien el material dentro del silo.

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RESEARCH NOTES

CROSS-PROTECTION TESTS CONFIRM THE PRESENCE OF ETCH VIRUS ON TOBACCO IN PUERTO RICO[1]

Tobacco-etch virus has recently been discovered in Puerto Rico.[2] During the course of a survey[3] conducted with the purpose of ascertaining the viruses present in our tobacco fields, symptoms resembling those of etch were noticed on tobacco plants inoculated in our laboratory with samples collected in the field. Further inoculations from some of these infected tobaccos reproduced the same symptoms, characterized both by chloritic mottling and patterns of white lines that appeared as etched on the surface of the affected leaves.

Preliminary inoculation on *Chenopodium album* L.[4] and *Physalis peruviana* L.[5] both gave the characteristic necrotic primary lesions caused by etch virus on these hosts. Positive serological reactions were also obtained when extracts from the suspected etch-affected plants were mixed with an antiserum against severe etch virus prepared in our laboratory.

It has been shown by Holmes[6] that in *P. peruviana* plants the conspicuous necrotic primary lesions and the subsequent systemic necrosis and defoliation of the severe etch strain did not occur as a result of inoculations made with the mild etch strain. The mild etch strain generally induces only a systemic chlorotic mottling disease in *P. peruviana*. Cross-protection tests in *P. peruviana* thus afford a convenient method for identifying the etch virus group. Experiments were therefore undertaken to determine whether the virus under study is etch or not. This note presents the results of the experiment.

Sample 475, which has given severe etch symptoms when inoculated on *P. peruviana*, was selected for study. Young *P. peruviana* plants were dusted with carborundum and inoculated with a mild etch virus strain. In about 6 days the inoculated plants showed vein-clearing, followed by systemic mottling, wrinkling, and deformation of leaves. No chlorotic or necrotic spots were observed. About 2 weeks later, when the plants had

[1] Thanks are expressed to F. O. Holmes, W. H. Greenleaf, and C. W. Anderson for supplying the *P. peruviana*, *C. album*, and the mild etch virus strain, respectively.

[2] López Matos, L., Evidence for the presence of the tobacco-etch virus in Puerto Rico. To be published soon.

[3] Adsuar, J. and Pérez, J. E., To be published soon.

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FIG. 1.—Protection against the severe etch virus in plants of *Physalis peruviana*. Plant on the extreme left inoculated first with the mild etch strain and subsequently with the severe etch (sample 475). The other plants inoculated with the severe etch only. Only the plant at the extreme left escaped systemic necrosis.

become thoroughly mottled, they were dusted again with carborundum powder and from 6 to 7 leaves on each plant were rubbed with severe etch virus (sample 475). At the same time an equal number of similar leaves of healthy *P. peruviana* plants were rubbed with the reinoculant to serve as checks.

In about 3 to 4 days the healthy *P. peruviana* plants inoculated with severe etch (sample 475) began to show vein-clearing of young uninoculated leaves. Almost simultaneously formation of chlorotic spots on inoculated leaves was observed followed by chlorotic spots, wrinkling, and deformation of leaves. A few days later the leaves that developed many lesions tended to become yellow and to abscisss. Later on the plants developed a systemic necrosis and finally died. None of the *P. peruviana* previously inoculated with the mild etch strain and showing mottle presented the primary chlorotic spots nor the systemic necrosis caused by the severe etch virus. Figure 1 shows the specificity of protective inoculation with the mild etch virus.

In view of the above-presented cross-protection tests and the serological evidence mentioned before, we conclude that severe etch virus is present on tobacco in Puerto Rico.

The experiments were carried out in a wire-screen house during the months of March to June; the temperature inside the house fluctuated between 60° and 100° F.

José Adsuar
J. E. Pérez
Department of Plant Pathology

CONTROL OF WEEDS IN TOBACCO SEEDBEDS

Among the chemicals used last year for the control of weeds in tobacco seedbeds Weedrench (allyl alcohol) proved the best. Natrin and Premerge, at the concentrations used, were very effective in controlling weeds, but they considerably reduced germination of the tobacco seed. Weedrench not only controlled weeds remarkably well, but the number of seedlings per plot was significantly higher than in the control and otherwise-treated plots. It was also observed that seedlings growing in Weedrench-treated beds developed faster and were of a greener color. Apparently, this chemical controlled some kind of soil-borne organism or interfered with some soil property which resulted in a better stand and growth of seedlings. According to our results, Weedrench can be used as a drench at the rate of 1½ gallons in 100 gallons of water per 1,000 square feet of seedbed. The tobacco seed can be planted a week after the material is applied.

Héctor R. Cibes
Plant Physiology Department
Alberto Amy
Seed Farms Division

ONE-PERCENT PENTACHLORPHENOL PROTECTS WOOD AGAINST DRY-WOOD TERMITE ATTACK FOR MORE THAN 11 YEARS

Pentachlorphenol is the standard by which other chemicals are judged for effectiveness and permanence of impregnation in wood for protecting it from attack by fungi and insects. For commercial use it is usually sold as a 5-percent solution, which is presumed to give an ample margin of safety even for external applications in contact with the soil or exposed to rain and weather. For use on furniture and interior trim, ordinarily not exposed to rain but, of course, susceptible to slow volatilization in the air, extensive tests have been conducted on the permanent effect of this and other chemicals in resisting attack by the West Indian dry-wood termite, *Cryptotermes brevis* Walker[1]. A test sample of West Indian Birch, *Bursera simaruba* (L.) Sarg., impregnated with 0.2 percent of technical pentachlorphenol (Monsanto) on January 18, 1944, was attacked by the termites after only 13 days, but 273 days elapsed before the sample treated with 0.5 percent was eaten. After 337 days, the 1-percent sample had a distinct gouge in the face, but the termites did not subsequently increase the size of this gouge. From time to time in succeeding years, this sample was repeatedly placed in test with fresh termites, but they completely ignored it, if not at times derisively using it as a repository for their excrement pellets.

Late in the summer of 1955, more than 11 years from the date of the original impregnation of this sample, the termites attacked it from the bot-

[1] Wolcott, G. N., Organic termite repellents tested against *Cryptotermes brevis* Walker, *J. Agr. Univ. P. R.*, **39** (3) 115–49, (ref. 4.) July 1955.

tom end and made a deep tunnel into its interior. When wedged tightly against another piece of wood so that the bottom end was covered, fresh termites made another tunnel into the top end, a tunnel so deep that several termites could take shelter inside of it. The original gouge on the face still has not been enlarged, but with deep tunnels from either end, it must be conceded that in somewhat over 11 years after impregnation, 1-percent pentachlorphenol, as indicated by this test, is no longer effective in protecting susceptible wood against dry-wood termite attack.

George N. Wolcott
Department of Entomology

BACTOCERA RUBRA *LINNAEUS IN PUERTO RICO*

Batocera rubra Linnaeus, a large grey cerambycid beetle more than 2 inches long, previously recorded only from St. Croix and Barbados in the West Indies, and from China where it is presumably endemic, is now known to occur in Puerto Rico. Don Julio García-Díaz found the first Puerto Rican specimen, identified by George B. Vogt of the U. S. National Museum, in July 1954, at Sardinera, a little fishing village north-east of Fajardo. Duplicate specimens were also collected recently in St. Croix by George A. Seaman, Wild Life Supervisor of the Virgin Islands, possibly indicating such abundance there as to stimulate migration to adjacent islands, if the Puerto Rican record is not of an accidental introduction in commerce. The beetle is characterized by a conspicuous large white scutellum, broad-based lateral spines on the prothorax, and stout, dark antennae considerably longer than the body.

George N. Wolcott
Department of Entomology

IDENTIFICATION OF THE POLYBASIC ORGANIC ACIDS PRESENT IN GUAVAS AND ACEROLA BY PAPER CHROMATOGRAPHY

The work done at this Station on the identification of the polybasic organic acids present in guavas and acerolas[1] has been repeated using paper chromatography. In guavas, the presence of citric acid in large amounts and of tartaric acid and levomalic acid in small amounts has been confirmed. With the acerola extract, considerable tailing was obtained at the starting line of the chromatograms. However, it was possible to confirm the presence of levomalic acid. Traces of citric acid, which could not be detected by the method used before, were found in several chromatograms of the acerola extract.

Rafael Santini, Jr.
Alice S. Huyke
Department of Chemistry

[1] Santini, R., Jr., *J. Agr. Univ. P. R.* **37** 195, 1952.

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Statistical Section
I. S. Bangdiwala, M.S., Asst. Statisn., in Charge
A. Cruz-Miret, B.S., Res. Asst. in Agron.
S. Morales, B.S., Res. Asst. in Statis.

Substations and Seed Farms:
Main Office Seed Farms Division
M. C. Guevara, M.S., Assoc. Agron., Head of Div.

Coffee Substation, Castañer
S. Rodrigues, M.S., Res. Asst. in Hort., Actg. in Charge
T. Singh, Ph.D., Asst. Hort.
J. Toro[4], B.S., Res. Asst. in Hort.

Corozal Substation
H. Gandía-Díaz, B.S., Assoc. Hort., in Charge
E. Feliú Otero, B.S.A., Res. Asst. in Agron.
G. del Toro Ayala[4], B S., Res. Asst. in Agron.

Isabela Substation
Arturo Riollano, M.S., Agron., in Charge
Marciano Avilés, M.S., Assoc. Agron., in Charge Seed Farm
R. Abrams[3], B.S., Res. Asst. in Agron.
R. Gandía-Caro[3], B.S., Res. Asst. in Agr.
G. C. Jackson, B.S., Res. Asst. in Hort.
A. Pérez, B.S., Res. Asst. in Agron.

Lajas Substation
A. González-Chapel, M.S., An. Husb., in Charge
I. Carlo, M.S., Asst. An. Husb.
E. N. Colón[3], B.S., Res. Asst. in An. Husb.
F. Díaz, B.S., Res. Asst. in Irrign. Eng.
J. Oliver, B.S., Asst. to the An. Husb. in Charge
C. A. Ortiz-Lugo, B.S., Asst. Agron.
J. Ortiz-Vélez[3], B.S., Res. Asst. in An. Husb.
M. Rico, B.S., Res. Asst. in An. Husb.
M. Rojas, M.S., Assoc. An. Husb.
J. H. Sanfiorenso[3], B.S., Res. Asst. in An. Husb.
J. Torres-Más, B.S., Res. Asst. in Agron.
R. Vázquez[3], B.S., Res. Asst. in Agron.
L. S. Willardson, B.S., Irrign. Eng.

Tobacco Substation—Gurabo
A. S. Amy, B.S., Assoc. Agron., in Charge
C. González-Molina, B.S., Res. Asst. in Agron.
L. López-Matos, M.S., Asst. Plant Path.
M. Manzano, B.S., Asst. Biochem.
L. B. Ortiz, M.S., Asst. Agron.

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[3] Leave to pursue studies.
[4] Military leave.